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THE
EMIGRANT'S
POCKET COMPANION;

CONTAINING,
WHAT EMIGRATION IS, WHO SHOULD BE EMIGRANTS,
WHERE EMIGRANTS SHOULD GO;

A DESCRIPTION OF
BRITISH NORTH AMERICA,
ESPECIALLY
THE CANADAS;

AND
FULL INSTRUCTIONS TO INTENDING EMIGRANTS.

BY ROBERT MUDIE,
AUTHOR OF "THE PICTURE OF AUSTRALIA," "PICTURE
OF INDIA," &c.

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TO

J. E. BICHENO, ESQ. F.R.S.

SEC. LINN. SOC., ETC.

DEAR SIR,

ALTHOUGH you are in no wise responsible for any opinions advanced, or any facts stated in the following pages, yet it would be unjust to let those pages go abroad to the world without an acknowledgment that the idea of the work originated with you, and that I have had the pleasure of repeatedly and freely discussing along with you many of the points on which it touches. I wish that I had been able to make the execution more in accordance with the advantage which I thus enjoyed. As it is, I have endeavoured to make it strictly

honest, and to comprise in it as much useful matter as possible; and, from your general knowledge, as well as your particular knowledge of the subject and the country to which it relates, if the book meets with your approbation I shall have little to apprehend from any candid and properly-informed criticism.

I am, dear Sir,

Very faithfully yours,

ROBERT MUDIE.

Kew, April 16, 1832.

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PREFACE.

EMIGRATION is proposed in so many forms, and as a remedy for so many evils, that in the multitude of words there is about it, plain people are in some danger of altogether losing sight of what it means. So many places are proposed too, as situations to which, above all others, it is desirable to emigrate ; and those propositions have so often failed, when brought to the trial, as to prove that, though they have been made in probably a commendable spirit of mercantile projection, yet they have been made in utter ignorance of the resources of the places to which they referred, and of the means by which those resources could be made available to the interests of emigrants. There is no need of referring to particular cases; because in those projected and, as they pretend to be, systematic emigrations, failure has been the rule, and success the exception—Ay, and a rare exception it has been.

The object of this little book, is to clear away some of the mist that has thus been suffered to

gather, or which has probably in some cases, been intentionally gathered around the question of emigration ; and though the limits to which it must be restricted, in consequence of the class of persons for whose information chiefly it is intended, have necessarily prevented that full investigation of almost every point, which a philosophic view of the subject would demand ; yet it has been the constant aim of the author, and he hopes not altogether without success, to embrace, at least a summary of all the leading points, and to place them in an aspect as clear, and as consistent with truth and common sense, as the limits of this little work would admit.

There is no question that one cause why emigration has failed in producing the good anticipated from it, is the want of information on the two great leading points of " What emigration can do," and " How that which it can do is to be accomplished." Every one knows what bungling, people make in common matters, when they go about to do that of which they have no knowledge ; and one would naturally think that common sense might ere now have sufficiently demonstrated the truth, that if ignorance necessarily produces error in ordinary matters, where part at least, may belong to former experience, much more must it produce error in the

great matter of emigration, where every thing is new.

Here it would be unjust to conceal the fact, that ignorance begins at the very fountain head, and contaminates the whole matter, down to the employment of the humblest settler. It is always found that, when lines of road or canal have to be made, the ground has to be purchased at double its value; and the public interest is sacrificed for that of private individuals. To do, and then to consider what should have been done; to sell, and then to survey, is the system: but the agent gets his place, as a reward for something or nothing, and that reward is the office fee on the mere sale. Accurate surveying is, no doubt, both a difficult and costly matter, even in an old country, and it must be much more so in a new one; but it is an expense which if laid out at the first, would be saved a hundred fold in the end. It would not be amiss that we should, in those regions from which we drive the savages of America, imitate the example of the Romans, when they drove the demi-savages of Europe before them:—they made a road across the country, and when they came to the river, they builded a bridge. We make a map, and write a book; but leave the country as we found it.

In the first chapter of the following pages, an

attempt has been made to show what emigration is, what are the circumstances under which it becomes desirable, what good it may be rationally expected to produce, and for whom. In that part of the work, the common politics of emigration—the adverse opinions, of the advantage of a mere diminution of the number of the people, as an abstract principle, and the loss of removing an able bodied man, after the country has been at the expense of rearing him—have been most studiously avoided.

In the second chapter, a similar attempt has been made to point out the description of persons who have the greatest probability of being benefited by emigration; and although the premises were not stated with the slightest view to the drawing of such a conclusion, it really does appear, from a fair comparison of an old and very highly improved country with a new one, that the persons who are the most likely to be benefited by emigration, are they whose removal, if not a gain, will be the least loss possible to the country which they leave. If the author has succeeded in rendering the conviction which he felt, while writing these chapters, intelligible to others, he is not without hopes that it may be of use.

The point taken up in the third chapter, is the country which an intending emigrant should select;

and upon that point the various considerations of distance, similarity and dissimilarity, both in the place and the people, are brought to view. The result of the whole is, that the best country for a *free* emigrant—that is, an emigrant who is free to go where he pleases, and at the same time free from prejudice—to go to, from any part of the British islands, is the British colonies in North America. Information respecting these colonies should, therefore form a very considerable portion of any book that professes to be an “Emigrant’s Pocket-book.”

Accordingly, the fourth chapter is devoted to a sketch of those colonies. In preparing that sketch, all, or nearly all the authorities have been collated; but the author regrets to say that they are sometimes not a little contradictory, and that he who seems to be the most successful in contradicting others, often puts his contradictory talents to the proof in contradicting himself.

The first section of this chapter is devoted to a mere notice of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick; which, though not so eligible for emigrants as the other provinces, ought yet to be in so far known by every one who is to become a denizen of the Canadas.

The second section describes what may be considered as the geographical skeleton of the Canadas,—

their extent, their form, their leading divisions, and the number of inhabitants in each, according to the latest census of the population, and corrected by more recent accounts, wherever these were accessible and could be relied on.

The fifth chapter is devoted to the natural characters,—the climate, the seasons, the soil, and all those particulars that appeared to be the most deserving of being known, by those who are to encounter the country in its natural and uncultivated state.

The first section of that chapter, gives a glance at the general aspect of the country, the way in which the land slopes, and the elevation and shape of the more important divisions.

The second section treats of the rivers and lakes, which are important features of all countries, but probably more so of Canada than of any other.

The third section contains a short estimate of the climate, the seasons, and the weather, with their effect upon agricultural and other field labour, and on the comforts of the inhabitants.

The fourth section gives a very short account of the natural productions, the minerals, the plants, and the animals.

The sixth chapter gives some account of the principal towns, the principal routes across the country

by land, and by water, and the principal articles that can be reared on the soil by cultivation. The last part of the chapter is, however, made very short, as it is not possible to teach an Englishman in England, what he had best cultivate, or how he had best cultivate it, in Canada.

It may be supposed that other chapters might have followed here, on the manners of the Canadians, and the manufactures and commerce in which they are engaged; but the Anglo-Canadians are too young, too mixed, and too scattered a people, for having any general manners; and the manners of any people are better met by practical civility than by pretended knowledge. With regard to the manufactures and the commerce, they are afterthoughts to the emigrant, his first object ought to be to find a kingdom for himself; and all that needs be said about the laws and local government is, that in Upper Canada, and partially also in the townships of Lower Canada, the laws are English; there are few taxes, the people choose their own representatives, and there does not appear to be many well-grounded causes of complaint. Politics, too, should (if a thought at all) be an afterthought with the emigrant.

The seventh and concluding chapter, consists of data by which the emigrant may, in part, regulate

himself in the preparations, the voyage, the landing, the journey to the place of settlement, and the management of matters when there. Some may be of opinion that this part of the work should have been more extended, but there are already so many books of counsel on the subject, and they are so inapplicable to the vast variety of cases, that the only safe plan, is to state merely the general facts, and leave each individual to apply them to his own case.

It has however been thought advisable to render this latter portion of the work more documentary than some of the other portions, by giving a few extracts from the writings of eye-witnesses. These have been fairly quoted and acknowledged, and the principle upon which they have been selected is that of usefulness and variety combined. It would have been easy to multiply extracts; but as those which are given refer to the districts that are perhaps the most eligible for receiving British emigrants, they may suffice for general purposes.

The few documents given in the Appendix will perhaps be of considerable use.

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THE
EMIGRANT'S
POCKET COMPANION.

CHAPTER I.

WHAT EMIGRATION IS.

MIGRATION is shifting about from one place to another, as we say of those birds that come to England from warmer countries in the Spring, and return again to those countries in Autumn; EMIGRATION is leaving, or going out of one country, not with the intention of returning to it again, but of remaining permanently in another country; and IMMIGRATION is coming into a country with a view of residing permanently in it. So that when any person removes from one country to become a permanent inhabitant of another, that person is an *Emigrant* in respect of the country left, and an *Immigrant* in respect of the country come to.

Whether any individual should emigrate or not, is a question that should be settled by that person, from his own conviction, with the most inti-

mate knowledge, and after the most calm, careful, and dispassionate consideration. All that information and caution are necessary, because the question is really one of the most important that any man can consider. Poor men have become rich, and miserable men have become happy in consequence of having emigrated; and on the other hand emigration has made rich men poor, and happy men miserable. From these considerations it is plain that the good or the evil is not in the mere emigration—in the changing of one country for another; but in the circumstances under which the change is made, and also in the persons who make it.

Sensible people never leave their parish, or their village, or even their house, unless in the hope that the change is to be of some advantage to them; for if there be no hope of advantage, the mere love of change is folly, and as a removal, even for a short distance, cannot be made without some expense and loss of time, changing for the sake of change is almost certain to make folks worse than they were before. That makes them wish to change again; and thus they get a wandering and unsettled habit, under which hardly any body can expect to do good. That, however, is no general argument against changing one's residence; it is only an ar-

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gument against changing it without due knowledge and consideration. Remaining doggedly in the same place, and refusing to leave it when there are plain and good reasons for doing so, proves as unwise as shifting without reason; and may of course be productive of equal, if not greater mischief.

Changing a house, a village, a parish, or even a county, is but a trifling matter. The manners of the people, and the employment to be entered upon, are not very different; so that there is not much either to forget or to learn: and as neither the distance nor the expense is very great, shifting back again is always possible, and generally not very costly. It must be kept in mind, however, that a return of that kind is always attended with some disadvantages. Those who return do so with the character of wanderers; and if they belong to any of those classes of persons that have to earn their bread by their own exertions, the chance is that their place will have been filled up in their absence, and that they will be in a worse condition than before their first removal.

Changing from country to country is a far more serious matter than changing from one part of the same country to another; and thus it needs both stronger inducements and more thought. The cli-

mates of no two countries are exactly the same; the soils are not the same; the productions are not the same; the methods of growing those productions are not quite the same; the manners of the people are not the same; and the laws and regulations are not quite the same. So that, in all those respects there is something to be learned, and something already known that will not come altogether into use. The new comer is thus, to some extent at least, a less efficient man than he was in the country which he left; and with the same natural abilities, the same bodily strength, and the same skill, he is inferior to those who have been for some time in the country, and are acquainted with the nature of it, and the habits of the people.

All those disadvantages will of course be modified by the differences of the two countries and their inhabitants. If the difference be great, the disadvantage will be correspondingly great; and if the difference be small, the disadvantage will be correspondingly small: these disadvantages are of a temporary nature only, and may be overcome by care, but the overcoming of them is a loss of time.

The expense and total waste of time in passing from the one country to the other, must of course depend on the distance that they are apart, and

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the kind and cost of communication between them. But as they are much more considerable than in the case of migration, or change from one place of the same country to another, and as the return is more difficult, tends more to give a character for restlessness, and doubles both the expense and the loss of time, it is a matter that requires consideration.

There are certain other considerations which, though the value of them cannot be expressed in money, or in time which, to those who live by their labour, is of the same value as money, are yet of too much importance for being altogether overlooked. There are the different feelings that go to the formation of what is called "love of country." Those feelings are natural, perhaps inseparable from human beings, more especially if they and their ancestors have been long in the same place. Even the humblest man loves to linger by the green sod that covers the last resting place of his father; and not only that, but there is a companionship in the very fields and trees with which we are familiar by long acquaintance. There are also the remaining play-fellows of our youth and the associates of our manhood, how laborious soever may have been the hours that we have spent together, and how homely soever may have been

our common fare. The most lowly of mankind, when their manners are pure and uncorrupted, have those feelings; and they are creditable to them, and useful to their country. The love of country lightens the burden of the country to the man that has to bear it without honour and distinction in the bearing; and therefore the feeling is one that deserves to be cherished; though no man should be so applauded for it as to induce him to love his country to his own injury.

That people take pleasure in it, and that the poor, when they are intelligent, take more pleasure in it than the wealthy, and take it because their range of pleasures is much more limited, is in all probability true; and though, in deciding upon the question of emigration mere feeling is not a subject to which very much value should be attached; yet it is not possible, and would not be fair if possible, to take away the pleasure even of this feeling without offering something as an equivalent. The new country has no equivalent in kind to offer; and therefore the equivalent of personal advantage should be somewhat increased as a compensation for the loss. For if a man goes to one country with a feeling of regret that he is not in another, the irritation of that feeling must, to a certain extent, weaken his exertions.

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These are some of the considerations against which the emigrant has to measure his expectations of benefiting himself by the change. They may not amount to the half, or even the hundredth part of that expectation; but it would not be well to put them out of consideration, at the time that the question "Emigrate, or not emigrate," is under consideration, because if they should come afterwards they would appear of far greater importance than they really are. If we have to estimate the value of any thing, we should always do it when that thing is in our possession, or at all events within our reach; for if we delay till after it has ceased to be in our possession, or accessible, we may depend upon it that the remembrance will appear to be of far more value than the reality.

There is another matter that requires consideration in the case of emigration; and that is the opinions that are afloat on the subject. It is a subject on which there are very many opinions, and as many motives for the holding of those opinions. In the first place there are persons who have an interest in emigration—who expect to make a profit of emigrants, without any or much reference to what may be the fate of those emigrants in the country to which they are invited. From the mere circumstance of having an interest,

it does not follow that that interest is selfish, and so altogether different from the interests of the emigrants; but still the reasonings of those that have an interest must be listened to with caution.

A second set of opinions which must be carefully examined, and not acted upon unless they are confirmed by other evidence, are those of parties who hold out emigration as a certain means of relief to the country at home. As a political question, that is far from settled, and probably it never will be settled, because the arguments used by those who take the opposite sides of it do not meet each other. It is, however, a question with which those who are considering whether they shall emigrate or not have little more to do than to avoid being misled by either party.

It is certainly desirable that persons leaving one country, in order to settle permanently in another, should not go, or resolve upon going, under the influence of anger or dislike, either toward the country generally, or toward any particular individuals in it. The step which they are taking, or deliberating on taking, is by much too important for being thought of under the influence of passion of any kind, and especially under the influence of passions that are so strong, and so apt to prevent people from taking clear views of a subject, and

forming a sound judgment upon it, as anger and disgust. On far more trifling subjects, indeed upon almost every subject, people are almost sure to repent, when they become cool, of the resolutions they have made and the steps they have taken under the influence of passion; and if one were to emigrate merely because one is offended with something or somebody at home, there are few who would not emigrate at some time or other.

But, on the other hand it would be foolish, because contrary to the common feelings and principles of action among human beings, to suppose that any one would emigrate from love to the country which he was to leave for ever. That would be acting from passion, just as much as leaving the country in anger or disgust would be; and on that account it could no more be done with sound judgment, or after clear views of the matter. In some respects, it would be even less safe than the other; for while it would be equally a matter of passion and not of reason, it would be an unnatural application of the passion.

The natural desire that arises out of love of country, whether that love of country be, as it sometimes is, a mere passion or feeling, or, as it always is among sensible folks, a conviction that the country deserves to be loved, is a desire to live

in the country, and not to leave it. The more rational, the more founded upon knowledge and conviction, that the love of country is, the stronger will be the desire to live in it, even at a personal sacrifice. Therefore when any one speaks about emigrating for the good of the country—leaving it because he likes it, he speaks that which is unnatural and inconsistent; and therefore, whatever may be his feeling about it, it cannot be substantially true.

People must not therefore put their resolutions to emigrate upon what are called patriotic grounds, that is, upon the plea of thereby benefiting their country. It may happen that their departure may be a benefit, and it may happen that it may be the reverse; but whether it be the one or the other does not in any way depend on love of country, or indeed on any feeling whatever, but on the facts of the case. Indeed, unless it be under very particular circumstances, the departure of an emigrant is a loss to the country. If a person is not good for something, he is not fit for emigrating, and as he must have been fed and reared at the expense of the country which he leaves, the departure of a man always is in itself a loss.

It may, as has been said, happen, from the particular circumstances of the country, that the departure of a number of the people may be an advan-

tage to it; but that is a point upon which politicians are not agreed, and appear to have but little chance of agreeing; and therefore it is not one that the intending emigrant should try to settle, or even to discuss at all; for truly he has no interest in it. When he emigrates, the country ceases to be his country; and though he ought to part with it on good terms, it is more for his own interest than for that of the country that he should do so; and to carry with him any such feeling for its interests as he had when he thought it was to be his for life, or as those have who remain in it, would be an embarrassment to him in the country to which he goes.

The only proper love by which a man deliberating about emigrating should have, or can exercise rationally and safely, is the love of himself, of those who are to accompany him or follow him, or of those whom he expects to meet in the country to which he is going. The only interests that he has to consider, and, if he is a sensible man, the only interests that he will consider, are his own and theirs,—or perhaps they may be as accurately, as well as more shortly expressed, by considering them all as his own interests.

The question thus becomes a very simple one; and though it is not so easy as one would be apt

to suppose to get correct answers to all the parts of it, yet it is pleasant to have an important question put in so plain and simple a form as that any body can understand it. "Shall I better myself, or shall I not?" is the general question that the man who is deliberating about emigrating should propose; and he ought not to make up his mind, one way or the other, without clear and satisfactory answers to it, in every point of view in which it can present itself.

He must even clear himself very carefully of prejudice before he enter upon it. When juries are empaneled for the purpose of hearing evidence and deciding upon matters of fact, of often much less importance than the question of emigration is to the man who is to try the question whether he shall emigrate or not, they are "purged of malice," in order that they may see the truth, and the truth only, in all the testimony that may come before them. The man who has to try the question of emigration, is a sort of juror in his own case; and like other jurors he should attend only to the facts, and give each of them its full weight and no more.

But he must first clearly understand what is the point at issue. The words are "Shall I better myself, or shall I not?" and the point to be understood is, the proper meaning of the words

"better myself." These words are few, but they are very important; and the whole question depends on their being rightly understood.

When a man speaks about "bettering himself," what does he mean? Does he mean that he shall be better in fact, or that he shall feel himself better? The first of these—being better in fact—is really the point, but it cannot always be separated from the other without a very great deal of care. The time when a man is most likely to think about emigrating, is when matters are not going very well with him where he is. He is dissatisfied with his condition, and wishes to change it: he is dissatisfied with his country, and wishes to leave it. There may be good and sufficient reasons for both his dissatisfactions, and there may be wisdom in both his wishes; but still those dissatisfactions and wishes are the very prejudices from which, if his mind is not cleared before he enters upon the question of emigration, he is in the utmost danger of coming to a wrong decision, and repenting of it ever after.

A man who, right or wrong, is dissatisfied with his condition, is in no fit mood for changing it to the best advantage. He is not capable of making a fair comparison of the condition that he is in, with the new one in which he wishes to be. To

make that in perfect fairness, and of course to turn the result of it most to his advantage, he should have precisely the same feeling toward the two conditions. He should not dislike or desire the one more than the other. Indeed he should have no like or dislike to the one or the other, until a careful examination of the evidence—a perfectly dispassionate estimate of the **advantages** and **disadvantages** of both sides, has furnished him with a reason.

But when a man is dissatisfied with his present condition, the case is in a great measure decided before he comes to the consideration of the evidence at all; and thus, the decision that he comes to ultimately is founded on ignorance as well as prejudice.

Besides there is another inequality in the comparison. The man's present condition is known and felt; and the change that he contemplates is only imagined; and thus he has a real feeling of that which he dislikes, and only a fancy of that which he desires. Under these circumstances it is not possible properly to make the estimate on any one point, or to balance all the little **advantages** and **disadvantages**, the sum of which is to make the change a good or a bad one. If, therefore, any man is rationally to consider whether he

had better emigrate or not, he must do so at a time when he is not dissatisfied with his present condition; because if he feels dissatisfaction, that is sure to put him wrong, in spite of any care that he may take when under its influence.

At the same time, persons who are very much and very habitually satisfied with their present condition, are not those who are the most likely to emigrate; because a man that is quite happy as he is never thinks of changing, and he would be a fool if he did so. But there is a feeling, and a very creditable feeling, which, though it differs essentially from dissatisfaction with one's present condition, has yet a considerable resemblance to it; and that is the desire of bettering one's condition. Persons may have that desire, although there is nothing in their present condition that they dislike, or can have any reason to dislike. And it is often strongest in those who not only have the greatest reason to be pleased with their present condition, but who actually are the best pleased with it.

That feeling is the honest desire of rising in the world, and the more that a man thrives, and feels that he is thriving by his own exertions, the stronger does it become, and the more good it is likely to do him. Those who are always grumbling and dissatisfied, and are never in temper to form their

plans well, and who consequently fail in the execution of them, are very apt to lose the honest desire of bettering their condition, and to seek merely for an escape from present misery and irritation by changing it, they care not, and they never inquire for what, so that it is a change of any kind. Persons of that habit are neither fit for deciding the question of emigrating or not emigrating, nor are they very fit for becoming emigrants, although somebody else should decide that question for them. An emigrant, whatever else he may have, must have cool possession of himself, and a mind not easily disturbed by trifles, because his fate will be different from that of the majority of emigrants, even of those who have emigrated very much to their ultimate advantage, if he does not meet with unforeseen difficulties of no trifling nature.

The man who has every reason to be pleased with his condition as to comfort in it, and as to his own conduct in it, but who still wishes for change from a feeling that he is honestly deserving of a higher and better condition, and could conduct himself creditably and profitably in such a condition, is the only man fit for deciding whether he should emigrate or not. Such a man, too, is the one most likely to be benefited by emigration,

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most likely to meet its contingencies, and most able to shift his conduct, if that which he has chalked out for himself beforehand, and of course from less perfect evidence than that of his own senses, should not be found the best fitted for the situation he had chosen.

Well then, we are to suppose that the man is in a fit condition and temper of mind for entering upon the examination of the question,—we are to suppose that he has no dislike of a passionate nature to the country he is in, that he is not actuated by a merely blind fondness for change; but that his sole aim is to better his own condition, without any fanciful belief that his emigrating will be either the better or the worse for the country that he is to leave, or that in which he is to settle. In short, he is to consider the emigration as his own matter altogether, and not to disturb himself with a single consideration as to what effect his emigrating may have on any body else; because if he goes out as a private emigrant, and not in some official capacity, (and if he goes in such a capacity, the office and not the emigration is the cause of his going,) the effect upon any body else, and the trouble that any body else would give themselves about it, will be very small, unless they see some prospect that they shall thereby serve some purpose of their

own. The next view to be taken of the matter, in order to get at a good and safe conclusion, is, that the consideration must be wholly one's own, and that it is not very safe to take any body's advice upon it, unless both the person and the advice be thoroughly understood, and then of course the advice goes as so much common evidence. Nobody can properly settle for another the question as to whether that other should or should not emigrate, because nobody knows a man's capacities, feelings, and disposition so well as he knows them himself. There is another advantage of self-decision in cases of that important kind, which is, that if the event turn out ill, there is nobody to blame but the party himself; and as a man has less tendency to blame himself when he goes wrong of his own accord, than to blame others when he has even the power of thinking that they have misled him, having the blame on himself takes away one source of irritation and grumbling. It has another good effect: there are no lessons so well remembered, or so likely to be useful in the way of warning, as those which a man gives to himself; and, the more sharply that the event reproves him for having acted without due knowledge, the less likely is he to be inconsiderate again.

When the question has been cleared of all those

matters, the points to be settled are *those in which* the man is to be better.

FIRST. He may be better in respect of the use to which he may be able to put the abilities and talents, whatever they are that he possesses, by employing them more profitably. That is, the same exertions may procure him more comforts, or he may be able to occupy himself more fully or more successfully—may live as well, compared with the average of society, and at the same time save more, either against the evil day, or for the purpose of rising in the world.

The determining of that in a proper manner involves a good many considerations :—

1. He must have a very correct knowledge of his own capabilities,—a subject on which people are very apt to have mistaken notions ; and, except in the cases of those whose spirits have been broken by misfortune, those mistakes all lean toward an over-favourable opinion.

The state of a person's health, and the degree of his strength, are first and important considerations. If he is to emigrate, the first should be good, in order that he may be able to bear changes and vicissitudes ; and the second should be considerable, in order that he may be always able to help himself. It is a good view for an emigrant to take,

that, for some time at least, he is to be "a man alone," in his new habitation; and he should be so well acquainted with, and have so full confidence in himself, as to feel that that would be no privation or inconvenience.

What he can turn his hand to, is another very important consideration; and the evidence must be that he has succeeded, not that he has never failed because he never tried, like the Highlandman with playing on the fiddle. A man that can do only one thing, however well he may do that, is not fit for an emigrant, especially for an emigrant to a new country. One very valuable means of judging is the readiness with which he has found that he can turn his hand to the doing of what he never did before.

A third personal consideration is temper. A man who is easily put out of his way, and loses his temper when he finds that things are not as he wishes them to be, is by no means well fitted for becoming an emigrant. No man can find out before hand all that he may chance to meet with in a new country; and therefore the best tempered man for emigration is he who has been in the habit of taking matters as they come. At the same time it must not be in the spirit of indifference and laziness; he must take them with the steady and active purpose of making the best of them.

2. He must have correct notions of the place that he intends to leave; so that he may understand all those circumstances which, without any fault on his part, have prevented him from getting on to the same extent that he feels he would have got on had there been more scope for his abilities. This is a part of the subject that demands the utmost care. There must be nothing of a political nature, and no envy of those that have succeeded better than himself, taken into the account; farther than that, if those who have succeeded better than he, have done so only from patronage or connexion of any kind, that is an argument in favour of his emigration. Indeed, every case in which he finds that the reasons why others have succeeded better than he have been, not their own personal abilities and application, but the influence of others, that is an encouragement to him; and wherever he finds that he has been beaten by individual exertion, that is an argument on the other side.

On this branch of the subject there is another consideration: Whether the means of rising which he seeks might not be found in some other part of the country at home, with less cost and loss of time than must be suffered in the case of emigration. That requires a good deal of care, and probably more local knowledge than many of those

who are disposed to emigrate may be supposed to possess; but still it is very necessary, and if it cannot be absolutely ascertained, the nearest possible guess should be made at it.

3. The intending emigrant must have accurate information respecting the country in which he proposes to take up his residence. For the purpose of determining his choice, his foreign information, as we may call it, should not be confined to any one country, but should extend to all that are open to him—to all to which he may go if he chooses; and the differences in distance, expense, and other respects, are to be taken among the particulars from the comparison of which he has to find out which country deserves the preference. On this part of the subject it is not necessary to go into all particulars, but into only as many of the leading ones as will give a just and reasonable ground of preference.

After that preference is decided, the inquiry as to the country chosen must be much more minute. It should, indeed, go to every point. To climate, as it affects the growth of plants, and the qualities of those products that are useful; and as it affects the health of animals, especially the more valuable domestic animals; but above all as it respects a healthy and vigorous state of the human body,

and reasonable length of life. The succession of the seasons, too, must be known, and their variations from each other, with regard to heat and cold, and to dryness and moisture. So also must the weather be examined, whether it be variable or run in long trains, and whether the changes be great or small, rapid or gradual. These circumstances are of the utmost consequence, inasmuch as, in countries that are comparatively new and have few inhabitants, they affect more the natural value of the country both as to life itself, and to the obtaining of the means of life, than any other causes whatever.

Next after the general consideration of climate, seasons, and weather, the surface and soil merit attention. One question is, Whether that surface be flat or hilly? If flat, highness and lowness, and also the composition of the subsoil are points of great consequence. Upland flats, except in very warm countries, are usually bleak and barren as compared with the slopes of hills of equal altitude. On the other hand very low plains are almost sure to be marshy, and however fertile they may be, they are unhealthy until they have been long under culture, and drained at great expense. The subsoil of extensive plains is very seldom rock, but consists of alluvial or accumulated matters,

varying in their consistency from loose sand and gravel through which the water that falls on the surface makes its escape as if through a sieve, to clays of so stiff and retentive a consistency that not a drop of water will pass through them. Both kinds will in general be destitute of stone fit for building; and both will contain few springs and rivulets. They will also suffer in the dry season, the gravelly soil by burning up and becoming powdery, and the clay soil by binding and champing like brick-bats. If the gravel is not very deep and lies upon a retentive bottom, water may always be found by sinking wells; but in a clay soil that mode of procuring water will be less successful, because less of it gets into the soil, and what does get in is reached with greater difficulty. If however there is a gravelly stratum under the clay, water may be advantageously obtained by boring, and when that operation is skilfully performed, the hydrostatic pressure will convert the bore into a spring, or even a fountain, which will certainly not act the less powerfully in consequence of being deep. When rain does fall, the surface of the clay plain will be much more inundated than that of the gravel; the water-courses will be more filled; the surface will be much longer in drying; and the

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climate will at such times be rendered colder and less wholesome.

If the surface be hilly, and the hills abrupt and steep, there is almost a certainty of finding stone; and as it rains more in hilly countries than in flat ones, supposing the climates in other respects equal, and as the water, whether on the surface or in the soil, is carried more to the hollows and through the fissures of the rocky strata, such countries abound in springs and rivulets. These are advantageous, as well for common domestic use, as for driving mills and other contrivances for lightening labour. On plains, these latter must be driven by the wind, or worked by the power of man, animals, or steam-engines; and man and animals may be more profitably employed in a new country, while steam-engines, which are so advantageous in old and crowded countries, could not be introduced in a new country without great and constant loss.

Comparing them with each other, it may be stated generally that the hilly country is the more healthful and pleasant if it is not so elevated as to be too bleak. It affords the finest situations, and admits of the most varied culture, though the plain may be preferable for grain crops, and also for the pasturage and feeding of cattle; but sheep thrive better

on the uplands and cannot be profitably introduced in the clayey countries.

There are many other considerations such as communication between one place and another, by means of roads, or by water, in rivers or artificial canals. Lines of road are of course most easily laid out in level countries, but in these clays especially are bad, unless paved with bricks under a light coating of sand or gravel, as is the case in Holland, and that can be done only in a country which is thickly inhabited. Distance from the sea, as a medium of communication with other countries, is also of consequence, though, as it is rather a mercantile consideration, it is an after one with the intending emigrants; and too much importance should not be attached to it. It is one of the considerations which Britons, or any other persons who depend greatly on the sea and on trade, are very likely to overrate; and therefore its very secondary nature should be kept in mind, by the man who is judging of the question of emigration. The trade and commerce, and their necessary tendency to accumulate wealth in masses, while the great body of the people have comparatively little, and thus to render the majority mere handworkers, without any or much voice in the matter as to what their hands are to be employed in doing, and therefore without any means

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of determining whether that be what they are best adapted for, are the very causes that render it desirable for individuals to emigrate; and therefore, of how much advantage soever they may be to the country which the intending emigrant thinks of leaving, they ought to be looked upon as evils rather than advantages in the country to which he thinks of going.

SECONDLY. After the intending emigrant has carefully weighed all the advantages and disadvantages of the particular country to which to emigrate; and whether, as respects himself personally, it is desirable to emigrate or not, there still remains the consideration of his family. This consideration ought not to be omitted, even by those who may not have families at the time when they deliberate on the question; and it is especially essential to a man who has a family, and such a man makes probably the best of all emigrants, because there is nothing that so soon turns to account in a new country as a healthy and industrious family; and there is nothing that sweetens what otherwise would be the solitude of a new situation, so much as the domestic attentions of a family.

The consideration, Whether a man should or should not emigrate for the benefit of his family, is therefore a very necessary and important one. As it is

desirable that he should not be separated from them, but that for their mutual assistance they should all go and share together, the removal of his family, which will in every case greatly increase the expense, must be taken into the estimate. The principal subject for consideration is, however, their future destination and condition. Whatever public men may do for fame, the private man is always most in the line of duty when his exertions are made for his family. The attentions, which, in our early years, we receive from our parents, we can never wholly repay to them, for they are gone before us. We do not therefore deal fairly by society, if we do not repay to the generation that is to follow us, what we received from the generation that went before; and in this, the feelings of all persons of right feeling go hand-in-hand with their duties.

Now it very often happens in old countries that, even where a man is able to provide for his children when they are young, he knows not what to do with them when they grow up, as every place and occupation is overstocked. An unemployed family is certain ruin to the father, and highly injurious to the children; and there cannot be a more painful feeling to a man who has toiled all his life long for bare subsistence, than that in the case of casualty his children must beg, and may follow

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worse courses ; or that, if he should reach the years of decrepitude, he and they must go to the work house together ; and that in the days of his last decline, when he needs attention the most, he should not only have the least of it, but should have perhaps to bear the taunts of those whom his labour may in part have contributed to render independent.

There can be no more rational and even praiseworthy ground of emigrating than that ; and he who can clearly act upon it,—who sees how those children, who are a burden to him in the country where he is, may be wealth and comfort to him in the country to which he is going,—and that their joint labour will not fail to place all who are dear to him in independence and even in affluence, when he shall be taken from them,—should by all means emigrate.

As that is the most justifiable ground of emigration, so also is it the most frequent one. The tendency of a country like England, where even capital cannot be profitably employed unless when it is in great masses, and machinery which works cheaper, and in merely mechanical matters better than human beings, can be employed of the best construction and on the most extensive scale, is to throw people out of employment. By men and machines together there is as much work regularly

done in England, as would take the labour of at least twenty times the whole population if done simply by the hand, or even with common hand tools. If the returns of that were to be shared among twenty times as many as at present, the average share would not support life. So that if an attempt were made to destroy the machines and substitute human labour for them, that would only make the average condition worse.

In all that machinery can do, men cannot compete with it, and it would be vain to try. The whole people in a parish could not break in a month a stone which a few ounces of gunpowder can break in a minute; and if they had no other way than to grind it between stones with their hands, half the people in England would be constantly employed in grinding flour for their bread.

It would be vain to attempt competing with these machines, and it would be ruin to attempt their abolition. They make commodities of all kinds cheap; and a working man of the present day, if skilful and constantly employed, can and does live as well as a king lived long ago. But as so much has been done by human skill, there is less to do by human labour. Skill has therefore become the valuable commodity, and labour is proportionably out of demand. The skill of one man in that way, does as

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much for the maintenance of twenty as they could do with their own hands ; but the one man who has the command of the skill necessarily has the control of all that that skill produces, and will not part with it without a fair marketable equivalent. All the twenty have not that equivalent to give ; for one man can make the machine, and another keep it in order ; and thus the eighteen are left destitute, and must either be supported by charity, or go to a place where they can support themselves by their own labour.

Whether this diminution of the demand for human labour be altogether a necessary result of the introduction of mechanical contrivances and more skilful modes of operation,—whether it be that the skill of the heads of the few has, when properly put in execution, a tendency, and the whole tendency to render the hands of the many less valuable and marketable, or whether a certain portion of the evil, at least, be not owing to regulations which have been made by those who were in ignorance of that which they attempted to regulate,—is a question which the emigrant is not called upon to decide ; and it is one of which the decision is by no means easy. The fact is however open to every man's observation ; and no man who observes can help noticing that the decreasing demand for human labour, in proportion to the number of people able

and willing to labour, is progressive, and independent of any contingency of seasons, fluctuations of business, or any thing else. It appears indeed to augment the more, the more that the country is prospering : and while the towns are extending rapidly over the neighbouring fields, manufactories are being established in all parts of the country, improvements in public works are carrying on to an extent that is quite unprecedented, still greater and greater numbers of the people are out of employment. If that were owing to any temporary cause, there might be some hope of supporting them till that cause ceased to operate, and a better state of things came round ; but as experience shows that it is not contingent, but that the privations to which that portion of the people are subjected are intimately connected with and have been inseparable from the accumulation of large fortunes by the other part of the society, it is vain for any one to wait in the hope that those privations will be lessened by any change which such a state of things can undergo.

It is indeed extremely doubtful whether this privation and distress, how painful soever they may be to those that are overtaken by them, are to be considered as amounting in themselves to an evil. It is only when men are in the lowest state of ignorance, when heads and thinking are nothing, and hands

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every thing, that men are upon any thing like an equality; because it is then only that their relative values to themselves or to others depend on their mere animal strength and swiftness; for, in proportion as their minds become informed, differences arise; and the man whose skill enables him to do what requires two or twenty without the skill, is twice as valuable in the one case, and twenty times as valuable in the other case, as any one of the unskilful. The skilful man requires no more food and clothing than the unskilful; and therefore he is enabled to accumulate property where the unskilful can barely live. This makes a second distinction; and the difference between the condition of one man and that of another becomes greater and greater; not because there has been any falling off on the part of him who brings nothing but his hands into operation, but because the man who has also laboured with his head has become greatly superior to him. There is another advantage in the employment of the head, in which the hands cannot participate; and that is, what we may call skill by hereditary descent. A man who can and does study any art or science, in which there is thought and knowledge, becomes heir to all the knowledge of those who have gone before him; and as that kind of estate is never incumbered, he may improve it the very instant that he is in posses-

sion of it. But, on the other hand, a man who merely works with his own hands has nothing to inherit; all the dexterity of these must be acquired. Thus while the thinking man succeeds to the thoughts of all who went before him, the merely operative man is heir to nobody. The distinction between the one and the other is therefore necessarily unavoidable, and if we suppose that justice is fairly done between them, the one has just as much title to complain of the other for being behind, as the other has to complain of him for being before.

But this difference is not only natural to, and inseparable from civilization,—it not only increases, as we perceive it to increase most rapidly in countries where the progress of improvement is most rapid, but it really appears to be, if rightly directed, one of the most valuable results of those states of society. It is, as it were, the vital or productive power of civilization, which, after it has done its work in any one country, tends to issue forth of that country and diffuse itself over other countries, until its advantages shall be diffused over the globe; and that it becomes an evil only when its natural course is prevented; just in the same manner as those substances which must be discharged in order to a healthy state of the body, become poisons when they are retained it.

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And those who know even a very little of the history of the world, cannot have failed to observe the good effects of this principle when it is allowed its proper scope. The civilized Romans extended civilization over all the southern and central parts of Europe as far as Britain. The civilized Saracens brought back knowledge into Spain, after what had been done by the Romans had been almost lost through the irruptions and wars of the Barbarians, and the civilization of modern Europe has changed a vast extent of country in America, which but a few centuries ago was a wild forest inhabited by a few hordes of savages in perpetual hostility with each other, to a country even now comparatively civilized, wealthy, and valuable.

All these things have been done without any very clear perception of the principle on which they worked. Some of the civilizers of those places have been sent there as a punishment for individual crimes, some for political reasons, and some by causes of a more private nature; but that such settlement is a necessary consequence of civilization and a high degree of improvement in the arts, is a fact of comparatively recent discovery.

There need be no apprehension of an end to this advantage arising from the distribution of civilized men over the world, and the consequent improve-

ment of those parts of it that are at present unprofitable wastes. The people who leave a country by well-directed emigration,—that is by emigration the sole object of which is their own good obtained by their own exertions, are always of far more service to the country that they leave than they would be were they remain in it. From Englishmen, or the descendants of Englishmen, who are now scattered over almost every quarter of the globe, England receives more stimulus to industry, and actually accumulates more wealth than it would have been possible for her ever to do if none of her population had gone out of the country. At the same time their going out has not been attended with any diminution of the number of people at home. On the contrary these have increased more rapidly; and one of the principal causes is, that destructive periodical diseases have almost entirely disappeared. Emigration is therefore a necessary and a valuable result of great national prosperity: Let us next inquire who they are that should emigrate.

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CHAPTER II.

WHO SHOULD BE EMIGRANTS.

THAT is the second branch of the inquiry on which every man who has thought respecting emigration should inform himself; and though it cannot be properly settled without a good deal of knowledge and consideration, yet the knowledge is not difficult to acquire, and the consideration is not very intricate. As that "necessity," which is the "mother of the invention" of emigration, is the natural consequence of great improvements in the mechanical arts, and of the accumulation of large capitals, and the introduction of machinery, it is natural to suppose that the very persons who can be best spared from the country that they are to leave, are precisely those who are best fitted for succeeding in the country to which they intend to go; and the more that the matter is examined the more is that, in all respects, found to be the fact. Nor is that the only

information of which we are put in possession by the same means ; for the description of persons that are to be most benefited by emigration, is a key to the kind of place to which it will be most advantageous for them to go. In order to give more clearness and simplicity, it will, however, be better to consider these two points separately : First, in this chapter, Who are the proper persons to emigrate ; and secondly, in another chapter, Where they can most advantageously take up their new residence ; then, the remaining pages may be advantageously occupied by the details of the place of their adopted residence, and the way of reaching it and conducting themselves in it.

In order to see more clearly who are the persons that should emigrate we must consider a mistake into which intending emigrants are but too prone to fall, and into which there is some danger of their being misled by those who are interested in the mere fact of emigration, but have no interest in the future fate of the emigrants. As an emigrant is, generally speaking, to become a proprietor of the soil, there is some danger of his confounding the proprietorship of a wild and uncultivated soil, with that of a soil which is cultivated and affords a revenue in rent. Now the proprietorship in a soil wholly uncultivated, covered with a thick forest or

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with marshes, is very nearly the same with the proprietorship which an inhabitant of the coast has in the fish of the ocean. He must first catch them, before they be of any use or value whatever; and just in like manner a man who gets a piece of wild land must clear and cultivate that land, often at considerable expense, and in all cases with much labour, before he can turn it to any use whatever.

The other and more general branch of the mistake is, that a man can find his living more easily in a wild country than in one which is well improved; that he shall, for instance, find it more easily in a Canadian forest than in one of the agricultural counties of England, his occupation being agricultural labour in both. Now if this were the case, improvement would be in itself a bad thing; but it is not the case; for it is just because a smaller quantity of labour, under an improved system, finds a greater quantity of the necessaries of life, that a portion of the labourers are thrown out of employment; and it is just because the obtaining of an equal quantity of the necessaries of life requires more labour, that labourers are in more demand and get higher wages in the new country than in the old one. It is quite clear that if the wages of labour be higher in one place than in another, the man who either labours on his own account or gets others to

labour for him, must do it at greater expense for the same return than in places where the wages of labour are lower. The emigrant, unless he goes to remain as a hired labourer, a situation which is by no means desirable, must therefore lay his account with working harder, for some time at least, in the new country than he would have to work in the old one if he could find constant employment there. And he must also bear in mind that there are many things which he will consider as necessities of life, the prices of which are, in consequence of there being no manufactories in the new country, and the carriage being from a distance, much higher than in the old country.

From this it immediately follows that no man is fit for being an independent emigrant, or even existing at all in a new country, who is not both able and willing to work. He must have health, he must have strength, he must have perseverance, and he must have more consideration than is necessary in an old country, where labour is divided and every man has his little department marked out for him by the general arrangements of society. He must not only be able to turn his hand to many things, nay, almost to every thing that he may require, but he must feel that he is in possession of that power, otherwise he will be in a state of perpetual apprehension, and quite unable to get on. Of course this necessity excludes

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from the list of emigrants all persons who could not, if they had the proper opportunity, support themselves, and also make some little savings in the old country. The maimed, the mutilated, or the silly, ought not to go there, for as there is no person to give them charity, their only fate would be starvation. The idle and the dissolute, even supposing they possess in a high degree those abilities which they neglect, are, in their present condition, very unfit subjects for emigration; and as those are habits which are reclaimed more by the restraints of society than by any other means, it is doubtful whether they would be benefited by the change, how much soever the mother country might be the better for their absence.

After the natural capacity and disposition of the emigrant, the next consideration is, What he has been accustomed to do; and this is the point upon which a comparison of the circumstances of the new country with those of the old one, is essential to a clear understanding. It is because the old country is one of highly improved manufactures, and efficient machinery, and a minute division of labour, by means of which the manufacturing individual has his whole attention confined to a single object, and so learns to accomplish that object probably ten times as well and in one-tenth of the time that he would require if

he were always shifting from one thing to another,—it is just because that is the case that the whole country has a surplus of labourers; and of course the labourers that it can spare are those who are the worst adapted, and therefore in the least demand for its own operations. In England the man who punches the eyes of needles, or puts on heads of pins from year's end to year's end, is better adapted for the system of England than the man who could cultivate two or three acres of land, and make all the rude tools necessary for its cultivation; but a man who could only punch the eyes of needles and put on the heads of pins would be of no use whatever in a country where the houses are probably twenty miles from each other, because there could not possibly be any employment for him.

In all the nicer manufactures, and especially in those in which expensive machines are employed, and which consequently cannot be carried on without a crowded population, and an extensive and ready sale, in the management of which the merely operative workmen should have no concern whatever to distract them from their individual pursuits, the workmen are a proper part of the system of a highly improved country; and, generally speaking, it would be imprudent in them, even for their own sakes, to remove as workmen to any country, excepting to one

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in a higher state of improvement than that which they left. As foremen or instructors, they might go to one that were a little behind that which they left; but even in those cases they would be less valuable as labourers; and whether they made up the same value or not, would depend upon their efficiency in their new character of overseers or instructors.

The range to which the manufacturing population are excluded from the list of advantageous emigrants by this means, is very wide; and it may be said to include all those trades which are supported by the staple manufactures, and the peculiar customs and habits of the state of society in the country at home. As, for instance, the various classes of workers in metals; the various classes of workers in wood; the various classes of shopkeepers—dealing only in particular commodities; and the various classes of workers in leather, and in all other things, the whole of which are done better and more cheaply in consequence of being portioned out among many hands. Very few handicrafts of any description are wanted in a new country, and of the few that are, each man must be capable of exercising all the departments of his province of the craft, and even occasionally turning his hand to some of the others. An emigrant smith for example should be a smith of all work; and besides making or repairing the iron part of the

tool or implement, he would be all the better if he could fashion the timber also. With all others the case would be exactly the same,—they would be of no use as capable of doing some single operation nicely, but as they could do a number of operations even tolerably; and a man who could begin and finish the clumsiest imaginable house, so that he made it only dry and warm, would be of ten times more value than the most skilful architect or the neatest handed carver. Considering the country as perfectly new, there is, in fact, no use whatever for artisans, or people who are skilled only in the processes of manufacturing, and whatever distress they may occasionally be subjected to by the fluctuations of business, emigration cannot in any way be made a means of relief for them.

And that it should be so, would be in opposition to the very principles upon which emigration can be considered as a relief at all. The prosperity of the manufacturing population fluctuates with the fluctuations of that system of high improvement of which they form a part. When trade is brisk, they are fully employed and well paid, and when they are not well paid, stagnation and change in trade are the causes. To think of removing them in cases of stagnation or change, from a place where trade might become brisk again, or where, if that were not the

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case, they could gradually change from one manual operation to another, to a place where there was absolutely no manual operation in existence, and no one to be expected, during the whole term of their lives, to which they could by possibility turn themselves, would be a downright and palpable absurdity. They are a constituent part of the system of the country where they are ; they would be no part, but a burden and an excrescence in the new country ; and therefore the duty of the country to itself is to support them by every reasonable means in every fluctuation under which they are unable, by a fair exercise of prudence and temperance, to maintain themselves ; and in the case of change, as there are many changes in fashionable manufactures, it is also the duty of the country to give them temporary support, and facilitate them in the directing of their mechanical abilities into new channels. Those duties hardly however require to be pointed out, inasmuch as they are at the same time the interests of all the parties concerned ; and people always manage their own interests much better for themselves, than any other persons can manage for them.

There is one other argument respecting the emigration of mechanics to new countries, which it may not be improper just to mention, although that which has been stated is in itself conclusive. Mechanics

are accustomed to confinement within doors, they are in consequence ill adapted for enduring fatigue and exposure in the open air; so that, even if we should suppose them capable of soon acquiring skill enough for all the operations called for by an emigrant, they must be considered as deficient in muscular power and hardiness. Taking this argument in conjunction with the other, it may be considered as an established principle that mechanics ought not to emigrate to a new country; because they would have to forget all they have learned, and to learn from the beginning all that they had to do, with constitutions and habits unfitted by their former occupations both for the learning and the practice.

But there is a wide, and probably also a clearer distinction, between those who should not and those who should emigrate. It has been already stated that the emigrant must depend on himself; and therefore no person who depends upon the rest of society, or who has any hope on such a dependence can with propriety become an emigrant. In thickly inhabited and highly civilized and improved countries, such as England, a very great number of the people are dependant on each other; and if you were to take away those on whom they depend, they would have no alternative but to perish of

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want. So extensive indeed is this dependance, that it may be said to include all the population which are necessary for the country, profitable to themselves in it, and on that account unwise to themselves if they leave it; and the party among whom emigrants are to be found, are those that are out of this connexion and mutual dependance,—those who are, as it were, no part of the system of English society, but are merely filling room there, to the injury of England and to their own great injury; and whose only plea of justification for being in England at all, is their incapacity of leaving the country, either from the want of information or the want of means. In this view of the matter, no professional person is wanted as an emigrant, at least, to a very new country; because in such a country no professional man could possibly live by his profession. So long as the houses are twenty or even ten miles from each other, there is very little occupation for surgeons, or teachers, or lawyers, or even clergymen; because any of those parties would have to travel at the rate of one hundred miles a day, in a country so tangled and destitute of roads that ten miles are enough for ordinary strength, before he could pick up any thing at all approaching to a living. The scattered settlers in such a country must content themselves with set-

ting their own broken bones, and plastering their sores, and instructing their children, and arranging their disputes, and finding their own religious instruction, until they have become so numerous as to have formed villages, and towns; and whenever the increase and prosperity of the population render the assistance of professional men at all practicable those men will be found, without any direct emigration for the purpose; and as the country must be to some extent an improved country, before their professional existence in it be possible, they will not be the worse that they are born in it, and go for a time to other countries to learn their professions. As a professional man therefore, no man should, and indeed no man can be an emigrant; because in any place to which a new settler can go, there is really no professional employment for him. Thus all that he has expended in acquiring a knowledge of his profession would be utterly lost to him; and in proportion to his very eminence in that profession, which would of course be in proportion to the exclusiveness with which he had devoted his attention to it, would be his incapacity for the duties of his new station as an emigrant. He would, in fact, be in the condition of a man having every thing to sacrifice and having nothing to gain in return; and consequently emigration

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would be the very opposite of wisdom, as it would be a removal from a place where he still had a chance, however slender, to another place where even a chance, until he had taught himself anew for that chance, would be altogether out of the question.

Having thus seen what classes of persons ought not to emigrate, the discovery of those to whom emigration might be desirable is reduced within a comparatively narrow compass. They are not to be artisans of any description; and they are not to be professional. But the agriculture of a country like England is reduced almost as much to a peculiar system as the manufactures. The modes of cropping, the management of land, and the various implements and machines that have been introduced into farming, are probably as different from the rude states of that art as the present English manufactures of brass and iron are from what they were in their early stages. They also harmonize, and form parts of an entire whole, so that they mutually assist each other, and the agriculture is upon the whole as necessary to the manufactures, and the manufactures as necessary to the agriculture, as any part of either of them is to the other parts. The best landlord or the best farmer or farm bailiff or ploughman in England would find

all that gives him his superiority at home of not very much more use than if he were a manufacturer, a foreman, or a handicraft. There would be greater sameness in the pursuit no doubt, but there would be the same diversity in the mode of pursuing it, and thus not one of those parties could emigrate unless at a very serious disadvantage.

Who then are the parties who should emigrate? That is best answered by considering what they have to do in the country to which they are destined. Now, as by emigration is meant not only a removal to a country which is new in situation and climate, but one which is new to culture altogether, that man will necessarily be the best adapted for the country who is, as one would say, as new as itself. He must have learned to use his hands, and to turn them to various purposes; but it is the worse and not the better for him to have learned any particular kind of working, or at all events to have practised it so long as that it has become a habit or system with him; if it has done so, he will have to change the habit by adapting it to the new system, or rather to the want of system, which he will have to deal with in the new country; and as the changing of a habit is a double labour while the acquiring of an original one is only single, the man who emigrates with his habits formed has double

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labour to perform. It is not perhaps possible to find, in such a country as England, any person who has not to some extent been accustomed to some sort of system; but there is no question that with equal strength, activity, and ingenuity, the less that any man has been accustomed to mere systems the better.

And it is both fortunate, and a proof that there is in highly cultivated countries a provision for the extending of cultivation into new countries, not only without loss but at a positive advantage, that the very persons who have become supernumerary and burdensome in the mother country, are they who are the best fitted for emigration. Occasional labourers,—those who have been obliged to work at any thing for which they could obtain even a small remuneration, who have been inured to cold, scanty clothing, poor food, and comfortless dwellings, who have little to lose or regret, and every thing to hope from the change, are the very persons who should emigrate. As they have nothing to regret, so they have little to unlearn; as they have borne privations, where there was no hope for them even in prospect, so they can better meet the privations to which they must be exposed in the adopted country; as they have been accustomed to do for themselves, with very little of

the help of professional, or tradespeople, the transition will not be very great to them from England to a place where such help is not to be had. The ignorance, and want of the power of forming consistent plans which naturally forms part of the character of such people, may be some obstacle to them; but certainly not so much so as those who found their judgment upon the conduct of well-informed persons in England would be apt to suppose; for the plans that a settler in a new country must form are probably nearer to those of a labourer than of any other person whatever.

There is another consideration which must not be overlooked, when we reflect that the question for the emigrant, or the intending emigrant, to determine, is his own good—his comfort in the country to which he goes, and not any thing, in any way connected with the welfare of the country that he leaves, or with any effect, good or bad, that the fact of his leaving may have upon it; and that is that, to the man who has no connexion, no property, no regular occupation, and no tie whatever to be broken asunder by the change,—but who goes from a country in which most that he met looked down upon him, and where he had not even a hovel or a hole into which to put his head, but by the sufferance of some one else, to be lord even

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of fifty acres of the wilderness, is a change vastly for the better, and calculated to give him that pride in himself which, if not the very foundation, is yet one of the principal supports of character and virtue.

Almost any other man has some regret, feels some privation and humiliation, in the mere fact of becoming a denizen of the wilderness; and will hardly go there without some expectation of bettering his condition, which upon the average stands but little chance of being realized. Those dreamers of fortune, *after the fashion of that of the civilized country*, in a country where there is no civilization, are the most insuperable bars in the way of judicious emigration. For it is they who first raise the benefits expected from it too high in their anticipations—anticipations not founded on knowledge of the subject, but on their own delusive dreams; and then sinks them unreasonably low, when they find that those dreams have not been realized.

Along with the labourers, who are occasionally out of employment, may be classed those cottage farmers who are in daily apprehension of being so, in consequence of their inability to take their part in the improvements that are making around them; who, on that account, see nothing but decline and dependance to themselves, in those years of their

lives when they are the least able to bear up against them ; and whose thoughts of their families, when they can bear to think of these at all, are nothing but bitterness. There are, all over the country, very many families of this description, who have actually fallen back, or, which amounts to the same in effect, have not advanced with the advances of the more skilful or more fortunate part of the world ; who feel that they have, from either or both of these causes, fallen from the respectability which their fathers held, and who fear and indeed feel that their children must fall from their little remnant which they themselves hold ; to whom every view in which either the present or the future can appear, is gloom not easily to be borne, and sufficient to damp their spirits, and destroy any effort that they might be able to make to regain their station.

There are very many families so situated, who still possess enough to transport them to a new country, and to keep them there, till they have learned its customs and its ways, and become able to support themselves comfortably in it. Not only that, but to rise faster to independence and comparative affluence, than they had, in the bitterness of their fears, dreaded that they would sink to utter misery and dependance in the old country. To

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such persons, the mere change is a source of relief and hope. In the new country they would be, as it were, at the head of society, and that is in itself one of the most stimulating incentives towards rising higher. It is clearly for the interest, the very best interest, of all who are thus situated, to emigrate; and perhaps they are about the highest class of persons that can with advantage, go to a country that is entirely new,—that can sit down in the wilderness satisfied with their own society, with the full determination of turning that wilderness into a profitable and pleasant heritage.

Thus it can be easily shewn that the description of persons who would be the most benefited by emigrating are precisely those that could be best spared from the mother country; and as that country does, and must, support them so long as they remain in it, it becomes a question whether the supporting of them at home, in the certainty that both their necessities and their numbers will increase, or the furnishing of them with funds and facilities by means of which they could soon provide, and provide comfortably for themselves, in a country where they would find plenty of work that they could do, and enjoy the whole profits of that work, be the better plan.

It may be that, in but too many instances, the

spirits of those people are so broken, and their feelings of independence so blunted by the fact of receiving parochial charity, that they might not have energy left for acting their part properly in a new country. But that that should be the case is much more a matter of apprehension than of probability. The feeling of personal pride may smoulder, and seem, to common observation, for a long time to be extinguished, and may yet be reared to wholesome activity, by more favourable circumstances; and therefore it is rarely ever too late to have some hope of good in so great a change, as from that of living houseless in one country to that of being a proprietor of the soil, however wild and unproductive that soil might be, in another country. In all cases where there is a rational desire of the change, that desire is in itself a proof that it is not too late; and where there is no desire, then remains the question to be determined whether the fault is in such a deadening of the character, as that the desire cannot be excited, or in the want of proper stimuli to cause the excitement.

One thing is to be borne in mind, and that is, that as the cause of the throwing of these people out of employment, is not in the reverses and failures of that society by which they are, in as far as usefulness is concerned, ejected; but in the very prosperity and

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improvement of that society, and always becomes the greater the more rapidly and successfully that that society improves, a natural suspension of it is not to be looked for, or indeed, in so far as concerns the whole of society, to be desired—at least by the rest of the people, whatever it may be by the party themselves.

And if they do wish for a change from it, the wish is a vain one, and if it were made in due knowledge of the subject, it would be wicked. If those supernumeraries are the result of the improvement of the country, and there can be no question that they are, as they are found to increase more in peace than in war, and to multiply faster under favourable circumstances—that is under circumstances that are favourable to the general prosperity and wealth of the country, than under circumstances that are the reverse, then it is evident that no resident in the country, not even the sufferers themselves, if they understand the matter, should desire a removal of them. If they did so desire, the hope of accomplishment would be vain, by any other means than such an interruption in the regular affairs of the country as would not fail to make the complainers much worse than before, as the sufferings of others would in no way tend to their relief; but they would destroy in others the power of relieving them.

As those ejected persons (for so we must call them, as they are so in reality) are the necessary results of the high degree of improvement, and the extended use of mechanical power; and as it is not possible, and would not be desirable though it were possible, to stem that improvement, or diminish that power, their numbers must go on increasing till they destroy the country either by consuming that which they have not, and cannot have, the means of earning, or replacing in any way or to any extent whatever, or until they, goaded on by the sufferings which they undergo, and which it is but fair that they should undergo as compared with those who are really useful to the country, break out into open insurrection and outrage, and the whole be destroyed by civil commotion.

That, though not a result which it is pre-eminently or absolutely necessary for the individual intending to emigrate to take into his consideration, is yet a result which is inseparable from the fair and proper consideration of the question of emigration; and circumstances have occurred lately, and are still occurring, without any other assignable cause than that of a number of persons who are not suited for working in the best and most efficient manner the system of the country, which give to it a very high degree of importance. Those circumstances are the

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wanton destruction of property, without any appropriation of it to the use of the parties who commit the depredations. If it were appropriated, the fact might be explained upon the ordinary principles of necessitous human nature—as theft to preserve the life, or felonious theft to gratify cupidity. But the wanton destruction comes not within the ordinary conduct of necessitous or of vitiated men ; but is a species of hostility,—a waging of war by a certain part of the population upon the rest ; and though the acts may in some instances be performed at the instigation of incendiaries that have purposes of their own, that they fancy they shall thereby serve, other than the mere destruction of the property, yet it is doubtful whether that has been the case in all, or in even the majority of the instances of destruction ; and even if it had, there must have been something wrong on the part of those who could be deluded into a participation in such acts by any incendiaries whatever.

And there is still another consideration,—that while those persons are remaining in England, in a state of alienism from the really necessary part of the active system, of consequent misery and privation, and of still consequent though unnatural outrage, the good that they might be doing is all the while utterly neglected. The very persons who are

thus living in misery, and open to, and perpetuating crime in England, are they who, under a wiser system should have been preparing new markets for the produce of English industry, at the same time that those very products of that industry formed part of the stimuli by which they themselves were roused to exertion.

Thus, it is apparent and certain that, while there is a power in a country like England, to diffuse civilization and all its advantages over other countries, and which, as it appears, by a necessary result of a very high degree of improvement, is efficient, and as we may conclude, prepared for that very purpose, that power is left to stagnate not only unprofitably, but as a burden on the country, at the same time that all the advantages which the world ought to derive, and might be deriving, from it, are lost; and that, while England and the world thus suffer, the parties from whom that suffering arises are, in truth, the greatest sufferers themselves.

The remedy of the evil obviously lies in the emigration of that part of the people which have, not from any faults of their own but from the system of the country, become a burden at home. But how that remedy is to be applied is another matter. Compulsory emigration will not do; and as for seductive emigration, the effects of that cannot be

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considered as much better. If people were, in any way forced out of their country, they would land in the new one with dispositions not the most likely to enable them to do good there; and if they were enticed away by glowing pictures of that of which the reality would certainly prove the reverse, the state of their feelings would not be much better. There is also the consideration that though all might be made right in the way of feelings, there would be a still more serious, because more insurmountable, difficulty in the way of funds; and it would be far from an easy matter to find a satisfactory method of getting the better of the difficulty there.

To give money to a large number of persons for the purpose of wishing them to remove from one country and settle in another, would be, to say the best of it, but a doubtful sort of experiment, and to carry them to the shore of an unknown, or the verge of a barren, or wild country, and leave them there, would be cruelty.

Fortunately, however, these are not points that we are called upon to settle; because it is not our object to decide for any individual, whether that individual should emigrate or not. That is for the decision of the individual himself, and all that is intended in these pages, is the humbler task of culling, arranging, and laying before him, the infor-

mation that seems the best calculated for enabling each to obtain for himself the fairest and most profitable decision of the question.

It is impossible to render the consideration of who should be an emigrant and who not, so precise as to meet the cases of individuals, because the circumstances of the individual are hardly matter of observation. The statements that have been made will, however, afford some guesses, if not some certainty as to the classes, the members of which may find it the least or the most desirable to emigrate, on account of the general habits of the class, and its relation to the system of things in a new or in an old country. The next branch of the inquiry is, To what country is it the most desirable to emigrate.

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CHAPTER III.

WHERE SHOULD THE EMIGRANT GO.

THAT is an inquiry of so much consequence that if it is not answered in a satisfactory manner, the whole question of "emigrate or not emigrate" may be considered as remaining unsettled and in suspense ; for if the emigrant is not perfectly satisfied in his own mind, however the result may turn out, that he is to be better in the country of his adoption than in that of which he takes farewell, he will not be contented with his situation.

The relative intrinsic value of the land, acre for acre, and the climate and other circumstances of the country are, without doubt, very important in the decision of the question ; but many of these are of a nature not easy to be judged of, with sufficient accuracy, without personal examination, and that for some length of time ; and therefore they cannot

be considered as comprising the whole grounds of decision.

Proximity to the country left is one element that is always worthy of being taken into the account, not only as the closer that that is, the more are the expenses and contingencies of the transit lessened, and the less time is lost; but because there is not so great an interruption of that intercourse with the parent country, which it is necessary under many circumstances, and desirable under all circumstances, that the emigrant should keep up. To be dependant on the mother country is not a desirable situation for an emigrant, but still, as a return to that country *may*, under many circumstances, be necessary even for the comfort and prosperity of the emigrant in the new country, that furnishes another argument why, of countries that, in other respects, present equal advantages, the one which is at the least distance should have the preference.

Another, and a far more important ground of preference is similarity, or that, of countries which are equal in other respects, the emigrant should choose that which more nearly resembles the country which he leaves.

This similarity admits of subdivision. There may be similarity in the country itself,—in the appearance, soil, and productions; there may be

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similarity in the government and laws; and there may be similarity in the manners of the people.

Now though, as has been said, the man who has formed the fewest and least confirmed habits in the country from which he emigrates, be on that account the better fitted for becoming an emigrant, inasmuch as he has less to forget, and therefore can learn more readily than the man whose habits are confirmed, yet there is probably no man who has lived long enough in a country to be capable of independent emigration from it, who has not formed not merely some habits, but a number of habits, that he cannot change without inconvenience and loss of time. Those habits may respect the country,—as he may be accustomed to the particular kind of weather or succession of seasons, to the particular productions and modes of culture; and though these may, at first sight, appear to be but trifling matters, they are often found to be of very great importance, not only in respect of feeling and comfort, but in respect of success. Those who have been accustomed to what may be called the “uniformly” variable climate of Britain have often suffered by carrying the remains of their experience of that into countries where there are long periods of drought and humidity, alternating with each other after the lapse of several months. Great dif-

ference of temperature is also an inconvenience, as when an inhabitant of a cold or temperate country goes to reside in a tropical one.

The difference of government and laws is, in all probability, a more serious matter; and when one has been inured to them, the change is probably more difficult to be made, and more disagreeable in the making, than that from one climate, or succession of seasons and weather, to another. The laws of England are, perhaps, more peculiar than those of any other country, and, perhaps, from being for a great length of time in the habit of hearing them praised above all others, Englishmen are probably more attached to their government and laws than the people of any other country. We have nothing to do with the ground of this preference. It may be well-founded, or it may be a mere prejudice, but still it exists; and therefore an accordance with the government and laws of England is an advantage, and should be, and generally is, a ground of preference to an Englishman, in making choice of a foreign country in which to settle, and become one of its permanent inhabitants. If the government and laws are the same, or very nearly the same, in their substance, their form, or both, in the new country as they are in England, the change will be much less felt, and the emigrant will, in one im-

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portant respect, at least, hardly consider himself as a stranger in his new locality, even at the time of his first arrival. Now, even when any return to it is doubtful, any thing that recalls the country of our birth, by recalling at the same time the memory of the days of youth, which are pleasant days in spite of situation, produces pleasurable feelings; and these conduce very much to success in any enterprize, and also to render the result of that more agreeable if it is successful, and less painful if it is not.

But if it be agreeable to the emigrant to recognize among the people in the land where he takes up his residence, the government and the laws of the land which gave him birth, it must be far more agreeable for him to meet and associate with his countrymen there,—to see the same character of faces to which he has all his life been accustomed, to hear the same language—the very peculiarities, perhaps, of the same identical village in which he learned the use of speech,—and to witness the same modes of life with which he is familiar. Those circumstances make him at once feel that he is quite at home, and he is at once able to support his part among them with a confidence which it would take him many months to acquire among strange features, unknown or imperfectly known sounds, and

customs to which he were a stranger. There is a translation of looks and of conduct, as well as of words ; and the man who has any one of them to work out by practice, to say nothing of the harder task of them all, before he can understand or be understood, must have very unpleasant feelings of dependance and helplessness, as compared with him who is previously furnished with them all. There are many minor considerations arising out of the similarity of the country left and that arrived in, but those which have been mentioned, may be regarded as decisive.

The general inference is, that a British emigrant should, for his own advantage, and without any necessary reference to the welfare of Britain, choose a British colony for his permanent abode, unless he has other inducements than that of mere residence. In many other places, unless he renounces his country, he is an alien ; and if he does renounce it, and swear a foreign allegiance, he is always looked upon as a sort of renegade, and never attains that consideration in the adopted country that he lost in the old one. He may accumulate wealth, though the situation in which he is placed is not the most favourable even for that ; but he can seldom, if ever, so far gain the confidence of the strangers, as to rise to any office or station of importance ; and the feel-

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ing of alienship that is expressed towards himself, descends, in part at least, to his family. There may be circumstances under which it is a man's interest to take up his permanent residence in a strange country; there may be other circumstances under which that becomes necessary; and there may be some that do it from capricious feeling; but it is not wise or natural, as a general practice, for those who emigrate.

There are very few countries under native and independent governments, to which an English emigrant can have access, between which and England there are not some remains of national jealousy. Probably those remains are, in some cases, becoming less and less, but in no case are they actually extinct; and, in the United States of America, the only place where English, or a dialect of English is the common language, they are probably stronger than in any other country. At all events, those who have resided for some time in these states without any particular prejudice in favour of their form of government, and some who have gone thither with that prejudice rather strong, have very generally united in describing the United States, as by no means an agreeable country for an Englishman. The language, although in substance English, has undergone so many changes, that the man

who uses it most correctly according to the idioms of England, is the greatest blunderer in the opinion of an American. The people too, are, to an Englishman, too harsh in their manners, and too forward and lively in their independence. There is little bond of society among them. Their independence is the independence of pebbles without their smoothness; and though they are probably in the practice of the attrition that may ultimately produce that effect, the din of the grinding is harsh, and the smoothness and polish are yet far distant.

In matters of bargaining too, the Englishman is so different from the Americans that he cannot easily meet them upon equal terms. American with American is a fair match—"Greek meeting Greek;" but each and all of them are so constantly governed by their own interests, and so unfastidious about the means or the mode by which they hope to attain those interests, that they are not the people among whom an Englishman, and more especially an Englishman of that class to which we have said that an emigrant may most profitably for himself belong, can associate either to the greatest profit, or with the greatest pleasure.

The choice of the intending emigrant, who has no other motive for his change of country, than that he may remove from one where there is not scope for his talents, to one where there is, is therefore

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confined to those colonies that are more immediately under the British government and laws, and partially at least settled by British people. In India colonization is not permitted, and though it were, it would not be advisable for the class of persons, whose interests and those of the country concur most in the fact of emigration. The habits and modes of cultivation, and indeed the whole economy of the West India islands, and of the colonies on the main land of South America, are just as little suited to British tastes and habits. Western Africa is a pest-house; and those emigrants who have gone to Southern Africa have not found their choice a very agreeable or advantageous one. Australia, too, whether the larger island of New Holland, or the smaller one of Van Diemen, is far distant, and very unlike Britain in almost every respect. It is also the place for those that are expatriated by law for delinquencies; and therefore it is not, upon any account, a very eligible place for those whose interest it is to emigrate.

Thus there remains but one locality; and that is British North America. In that country there is, however, abundance of space, and no want of inducements, although the distance is considerable, and attended with some hazards and hardships that are not experienced on some longer voyages that are made wholly on the ocean; and although but few

commercial advantages can be expected, at least for a very long time. Commerce is not the object, however, to which the attention of the *spare* people—the people who leave the country because there is no proper scope for their working powers in it, should be directed. It is because they are not fit parts of the commercial system at home, or are not wanted for the carrying on of that system, that they are to spare. They have of course no commercial knowledge, and therefore they would be out of their element, were they to attempt any thing of the kind. What they stand in need of is employment, as similar as possible to that to which they have been accustomed, and a reasonable hope of plenty and independence, if they are diligent and persevering in the performance of that labour. That they are almost certain of in British North America, if they can once get settled there, and go rightly to work. There is also the advantage that, if they make choice of the proper place, they may be in the near neighbourhood not only of Britons, but of persons from their own part of the country. That is a very decided advantage, as it is calculated, sooner than any thing else, perhaps, to reconcile them to a place, where the scenery and the employment are almost entirely new. Another inducement is their being wholly under British laws; and

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having their own Houses of Assembly and local management, to a share in which they may naturally aspire. Thus a Briton finds in that colony not merely his brethren, but also his birth-right—that which, if he has any knowledge at all, he has been taught to esteem the most ; and thus, notwithstanding the distance, and the change in the climate, the seasons, and the appearance of the country, there is still enough to justify the feeling that one is still in a province, though a distant province, of Britain itself. That feeling is one which is well worthy of being cherished for that mutual advantage of the mother country and the colony, upon which both their interests are so dependant ; and the want of which has been so painfully experienced, in colonies that were established and conducted for long periods, before the relations between them and the countries from which they emanated, were so well understood as they ought to be now.

There is one other consideration very much in favour of those colonies, and that is, that a labourer, or one of the plain artisans that are necessary in the state of the country, is sure to find work and obtain wages, from the savings of which he may, in a year or two, be able to purchase a lot of land. In this way, single men, and also those who can conveniently leave their families behind them for a

year or two, may make just as sure of arriving at independence in Canada, as they are of coming to beggary and the workhouse in England ; and bitter experience shows that that is the only certainty to which an English labourer can look.

The plan, in the days alluded to, was to make the colony a source of direct revenue to the mother country,—to endeavour to obtain from those who had their country absolutely to make—at least to change from a very wild state—a revenue for a country that had been for ages under civilization. Profitable in the way of commerce a country may be ; and when the country is in a state at all resembling the present state of England, the colony is of value, as affording profitable employment to those who cannot obtain that at home ; but to suppose that any one country can for any length of time continue to yield a revenue to another, which is in fact more wealthy than itself, is an absurdity ; and in all cases where the attempt has been persevered in, revolt and subsequent hatred have been the consequences. From the comparatively recent settlements of the British portion of North America, there are some reasons for hoping that it may form an exception ; and as it is interesting in other respects, the remaining pages are devoted chiefly to it.

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CHAPTER IV.

GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF BRITISH NORTH
AMERICA.

ALTHOUGH it is not necessary, and indeed not to be expected, that the emigrant should have a general knowledge of geography, yet it is absolutely indispensable that he should have, at least, some knowledge of the country in which he is to take up his abode; and the British possessions in North America are so extensive, and so various in their climates and productions, and in the occupations of their inhabitants, that a general account becomes necessary, as a preface to the statistics of the particular districts.

Those possessions consist of the country on the north bank of the great river St. Lawrence, with a portion of that on the south, for an extent, from east to west, as explored in part at least, of more than 1200 miles on the parallel of latitude, and the western boundary is indefinite. The extreme breadth



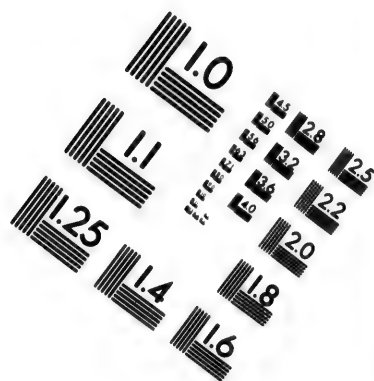
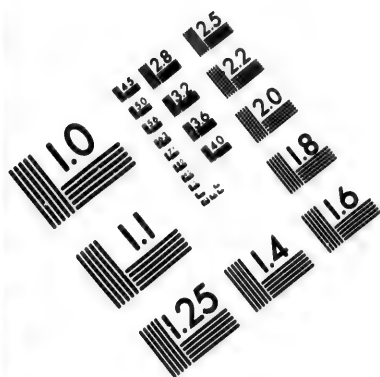
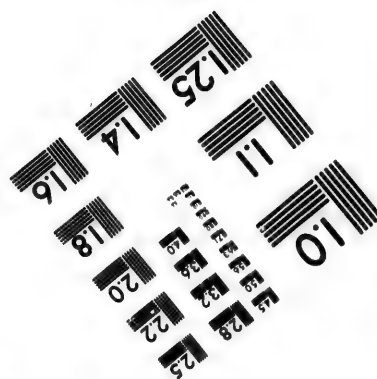
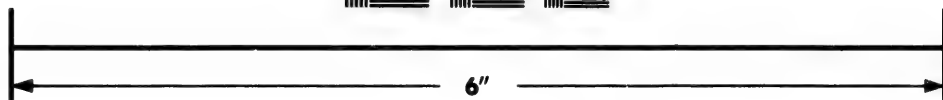
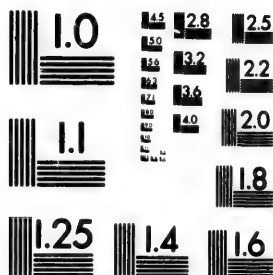


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from north to south, is also nearly 800 miles, and the northern boundary is indefinite,—the country being British as far as it is habitable, or admits being visited during the summer months.

The boundaries of this great extent of territory, even where they are definite, are very irregular, and greatly exceed the straight-lined dimensions. From the extreme east, there are about 800 miles of sea-boundary, westward on the south side, without reckoning the smaller bays and creeks. Westward of this, there are nearly 600 miles of a boundary along the land, which is not absolutely settled. At the extremity of that boundary, the great river St. Lawrence separates the British territory from the United States, extending south-westward for about 100 miles to Lake Ontario. Lake Ontario is 150 miles on the straight line to the mouth of the River Niagara; but the shores of that lake make, at least, 250 miles of coast. The River Niagara to Lake Erie is about 25 miles; and Lake Erie is 250 miles on the straight line. From the head of Lake Erie, through Lake St. Clair, to Lake Huron, is about 100 miles; Lake Huron is, at least, 300 miles, and Lake Superior 400 miles. From the head of Lake Superior the boundary stretches north-westward to the Lake of the Woods; and thence westward along the parallel of 49° . The words of the treaty say,

that it is to be drawn to the Mississippi; but the source of the Mississippi is *southward* of the Lake of the Woods. The north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods being in $49^{\circ} 20'$, the boundary stretches southward to the parallel of 49° ; then westward along that parallel to the highest ridge of the rocky mountains; and thence on the parallel $42^{\circ} 50'$, to the Pacific Ocean. A portion of the north west is claimed by Russia as far south as to about the 51° of latitude, and the Russian portion may be considered as bounded eastward by the meridian of about 140° west of Greenwich, from Mount Elias to the shores of the Arctic Sea. In the present state of the country, however, those boundaries are not of much consequence; though the fur trade from North-western America to China is a source of very considerable revenue to the Russians. Reckoning the boundary only as far as Lake Superior, there are, exclusive of bays, upwards of 2000 miles which are water, and generally speaking, navigable for vessels of large burden; at least there are not above 200 or 300 miles out of the 2000, that are not deep water; for the lakes have all the depth, and all the danger of seas.

On the east coast the extent of water boundary is also very great. From the extreme point of the island of Cape Breton westward, on the south side

of the St. Lawrence to Quebec, where the sea navigation may be said to end, there are, exclusive of bays and creeks, at least 1000 miles of coast; and 700 may be considered as approachable on the north side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. That portion of the St. Lawrence from Quebec, south-westward, which lies wholly within the British territory, is, at least, 200 miles in length, which gives an additional 400 miles of navigable shore. So that, without taking islands, other navigable rivers besides the St. Lawrence, or irregularities of the coast into the account, it may be stated that the British provinces in North America have nearly 5000 miles susceptible of being approached by ships or boats of some description or other. Much of this water-communication too, lies in the interior of the country; and it may be said, that the only portion that is exposed to hostility, is the 100 miles of the St. Lawrence below Lake Ontario; and for commercial purposes that may be avoided by means of the Rideau Canal, from Kingston on Lake Ontario, to Hull on the Ottawa River.

It will be more convenient to divide the remainder of this chapter into sections.

SECTION I.—PROVINCES.

The British territories in North America, at least

that portion of them which is fit for being the permanent residence of inhabitants, consists of five provinces :—Newfoundland ; Nova Scotia ; New Brunswick, including Prince Edward's Island ; and Lower and Upper Canada. The three provinces first mentioned, are not very well adapted for the residence of emigrants ; and in Lower Canada the English settler labours under a disadvantage, because the majority of the people are French.

Newfoundland.

Newfoundland is an island of an irregular triangular shape, lying between about $46\frac{1}{2}$ and $51\frac{3}{4}$ ° north latitude, and between about $52\frac{1}{2}$ and $59\frac{1}{4}$ ° west longitude. Its greatest length is about 350 miles, in its greatest breadth nearly 300. It occupies the northern portion of the entrance to the Gulf of the St. Lawrence ; and it used to be valued chiefly on account of the fishing on the great banks to the southward of it. The great bank is nearly 700 miles in length from north to south ; the breadth also is considerable ; and the quantity of fish, more especially of cod, that resort to it during the fishing season, which lasts from April to October, is almost incredible. Exclusive of other nations, it is estimated that the British employ on the average annually, about 400 ships of nearly

100 tons each, and 2000 fishing shallops or busses of about 10 tons each, the whole manned by upwards of 20,000 individuals, a portion of whom, however, are landsmen. There are twelve men in each shallop; and in good seasons these catch about 20,000 cod, which are of firm consistency, but seldom more than three feet in length. The value of the fish thus annually caught by British adventurers alone, is not much less than 5,000,000*l.*—a vast revenue to derive from the sea over one assemblage of banks.

There is no doubt, that those vast banks have been accumulated by the two currents in the sea, one from the St. Lawrence, and the other along the eastern shore of America, all the way from the Gulf of Mexico. The latter current, being by much the warmer of the two, forms the surface water; and the difference of temperature is sometimes as much as from 15° to 20° of the common thermometer. Sweeping along as those currents do, there is no question that they collect, from a vast extent of sea, food for the great shoals of cod. The heat of the water is, however, attended with considerable inconvenience. When air passes over a moist surface, warmer than itself, it becomes loaded with fog; and that fog is dense in proportion to the difference of temperature between them. In few cases is

there so great a difference between the temperature of the surface and that of the air, as when the wind blows from north-east toward Newfoundland; and the consequence is, that the fogs are denser there, not only on the banks and the shores of the island, but in the adjoining places at some seasons, than in almost any other part of the world. Though by no means a desirable place to settle in, Newfoundland now contains probably about 80,000 inhabitants, which is more than three times the number it contained about forty years ago. Some spots are susceptible of cultivation, but in general the island consists of rocky eminences, interspersed with marshes, and forests of stunted and not very valuable timber. There are numbers of bears, wolves, foxes, and deer in the forests; the rivers and lakes are plentifully supplied with salmon; and beavers, otters, and other water quadrupeds are abundant. It does not appear that the well-known Newfoundland dog is a native of the island.

Nova Scotia.

The province of Nova Scotia occupies the extreme east of continental America, southward of the St. Lawrence; and it is one of the most perfect examples of a peninsula any where to be met with. Its greatest length, which lies in the direction of

north-east and south-west, is nearly 400 miles, and its breadth varies from 50 to more than 100. The south-east and south-west sides are washed by the Atlantic. The north-west side is bounded by the extensive Bay of Fundy, and its continuation, Chignecto Bay, then by about eleven miles of a neck of land to Bay Bute, which communicates with the Northumberland Strait, which has Prince Edward's Island on the north side. On the north-east it is separated from the island of Cape Breton by St. George's Bay and the Gulf of Canseau, so that, with the exception of the eleven miles alluded to, it is entirely bounded by sea. It has been proposed to cut a canal through this eleven miles, and thereby avoid the long and dangerous navigation round Cape Breton; and an estimate under 70,000*l.* has been given, for one that would admit vessels drawing eight feet of water; but it is doubtful if a due estimate of the different rise of the tides has been made. There are many creeks and inlets, several of which, especially that at Halifax the capital, form excellent, capacious, and safe harbours. In the Bay of Fundy and its continuations, the tides rise to a very great elevation,—more so than, perhaps, in any other part of the world, as the opening of the bay is right against the line of the current from the south.

Though not a mountainous country, there being no elevation exceeding six hundred feet, Nova Scotia is very much diversified by hill and dale; and it is remarkably well supplied with water. The province altogether contains about nine millions of acres, of which two millions are described as good soil, three millions as moderate, two millions are bad, and the remainder is absolutely sterile and unfit for cultivation. About four millions of acres are already appropriated; and as these are equal to all the good lands, and two-thirds of the middling sort, the remaining five millions hold out few temptations to settlers.

The winters in Nova Scotia are long and cold; and the spring is remarkably short, so that the land is cultivated at considerable expense, as more labourers are wanted at that season than can be employed during the rest of the year. The climate is moist, and very foggy in the spring and autumn; but it is said to be disagreeable rather than unhealthy. The wind, which is most pernicious, both to vegetation and health, is a cold drying wind; and not one that is so much charged with moisture as to produce fogs. Both the people and the crops suffer far more from the winds in the United States, than they do in Nova Scotia. Vegetation is very rapid and vigorous in the latter; the fields are richly

green ; and the potato, though understood to be a native of the tropical parts of America, thrives better in Nova Scotia than in any other part of the continent.

It was mentioned that Halifax has an excellent harbour,—indeed it is one of the best in America—accessible at all seasons, and capable of receiving more than a thousand vessels, which can anchor in perfect safety. The town corresponds. It contains about fifteen thousand inhabitants; and in 1828 the exports, exclusive of coasting trade, amounted to nearly 250,000*l.*; and the imports to upwards of 700,000*l.* Both ways, about 1100 vessels were employed, and upwards of 6600 men. Pictou, on the opposite coast of the same province, (Halifax is eastward on the Atlantic), has a commodious harbour, and though there is a bar across it, there are twenty-two feet on that at low water. There are many other commodious towns and harbours in Nova Scotia; there is also an abundant supply of coal, iron-stone, and building and grit stones; but from the circumstance that has been already stated, as well as from its almost insular situation, it is not the best possible country for emigrants; and altogether its characters are commercial rather than agricultural—better adapted for speculating capitalists than for simple settlers.

New Brunswick.

The province of New Brunswick lies immediately to the west of Nova Scotia, from which it is separated by the Bay of Fundy and Chignecto, and Bay Verte on the St. Lawrence side; and the northern part of the east boundary is formed by Northumberland Strait and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The Bay of Chaleur, and the River Ristigauche, which falls into that bay, form the separation from Lower Canada on the north; and the western boundary, from the Bay of Passamaquaddy northward, is formed by the district of Maine in the United States.

New Brunswick is a large province, containing nearly 18,000,000 of acres, by computation; but a small portion only of it is settled, and the rest consists of vast forests. Great quantities of timber have been cut down in those forests; though the operation has, in general, been carried on in rather a slovenly manner, and double the quantity that has been used has been wasted. The winter in New Brunswick is long and severe, the thermometer being sometimes as much as 50° below freezing; and in the summer it rises as high as 90° . It does not appear, however, that the climate is unhealthy,

though it may, and indeed must, be more so than that of Nova Scotia. The rivers in the interior are generally frozen over in winter; but the harbours that open into the Bay of Fundy are never wholly blocked up by the ice.

SECTION II.—THE CANADAS.

The provinces of Lower and Upper Canada may be described as occupying the whole of the lower valley of the St. Lawrence, and the northern half of the upper, and of the basin of the great lakes.

Lower Canada.

The *lower* province lies between 45° and 52° of north latitude, and 63° and 81° of west longitude, —thus having an extent from east to west of more than 800 miles; and nearly 500 from north to south. The northern boundary is the district of East Maine, towards Hudson's Bay; the eastern boundaries are Labrador and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; the southern New Brunswick, and the United States; the south-west Upper Canada, from which it is separated by the Ottawa River, and the north-west the Hudson's Bay territory.

The province is divided into three principal districts—Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers ; with the two minor ones of Gaspé and St. Francis. These districts are subdivided into forty counties, the names of which, with the number of holdings, will be most conveniently shown in a tabular form. It is to be borne in mind that the *seigniories* and *fiefs* are the old French grants while the province belonged to that people, and they are held according to the ancient feudal law of France. The *townships*, on the other hand, are British grants, and held upon the tenure of common soccage.

The Montreal District contains, 19 Counties, 63 Seigniories, 6 Fiefs, and 59 Townships.

Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.	Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.
Acadie . . .	2		1	Rouville . . .	7		
Beauharnois . .	1		3	St. Hyacinthe . .	3		
Berthier . . .	8	3	2	Shefford . . .			8
Chambly . . .	5	1		Stanstead . . .			6
Lachenaye . .	2		2	Terrebonne . .	4		3
La Prairie . . .	4			Two Mountains .	3		6
L'Assomption .	1		2	Vaudreuil . .	4		1
Missisquoi . . .	1		3	Vercheres . . .	8	2	
Montreal . . .	1			Projected)			
Ottawa	1		8	Townships)			14
Richelieu . . .	8						

The Quebec District contains, 13 Counties, 79 Seigniories, 12 Fiefs, and 38 Townships.

Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.	Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.
Beauce	7		9	Montmorenci .	1		
Bellechasse . . .	7	2	4	Orleans	1		
Dorchester . . .	1			Portneuf	13	3	
Kamouraska . . .	7	1	3	Quebec	4	2	2
L'Islet	9	3	1	Rimouski	15	1	2
Lotbinière	8			Saguenay	6		1
Megantic			16				

The Three Rivers District contains, 6 Counties, 25 Seigniories, 9 Fiefs, and 53 Townships.

Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.	Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.
Champlain . . .	5		1	St. Maurice . .	8	5	3
Drummond . . .			19	Sherbrooke . . .			28
Nicolet	4	4	2	Yamaska	8		

The Gaspé District contains, 2 Counties, 1 Seignior, 6 Fiefs, and 10 Townships.

Counties.	Seigns.	Fiefs.	Towns.
Bonaventure	1		7
Gaspé		6	3

According to the census of 1829, the population of those districts was as follows :—

Montreal	268,681
Quebec	143,761
Three Rivers	51,657
Bonaventure	5,160
Gaspé	2,617
Total	471,876

In glancing over the list of counties, the proportion that the feudal tenures bear to the townships, affords a means of judging whether the people be chiefly French or British, a question of some importance to British emigrants intending to take up their abode in Lower Canada. Thus, for instance, in the Montreal district, while Richelieu is wholly French tenure, the country on the Ottawa is wholly British. The French grants are the most accessible, and, generally speaking, the best lands in the province. The whole surface of the French grants amounts to little short of 10,000,000 of acres, but more than the half of that immense surface is still waste, and much of it is not fit for cultivation. The best cultivated places are on the banks of the St. Lawrence, the islands in that river, and some of the tributaries that fall into it. The surveyed

lands to be granted in townships amounts to nearly the same as the feudal lands ; but they lie more in the rear, and are in consequence neither so accessible nor so valuable. In the interior, the townships are about ten miles square ; and on the rivers they are nine miles along the banks and twelve miles backwards. One of these rectangular townships contains eleven concessions, and each range 28 lots of 200 acres each inclusive of roads. Of the 308 lots that are thus in a township, 88 are reserved for the crown and the clergy, and 220 are disposed of to settlers.

That portion of Lower Canada which lies on the north, or left-hand bank, of the St. Lawrence may be conveniently divided into three natural sections. First, the country from the confluence of the Ottawa with the St. Lawrence, including a small portion on the opposite side of the mouth of the Ottawa, to the confluence of the St. Maurice with the St. Lawrence at the town of Trois Rivières. Secondly, from the last-mentioned river to the mouth of the Seguenay, about 120 miles north-eastward of Quebec ; and thirdly, from the Seguenay eastward along the estuary of the St. Lawrence to Labrador.

“ The front which this,” (the first section,) says M. Bouchette, “ presents on the Ottawa River, and

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on the St. Lawrence exceeds 450 miles ; the whole of which distance, saving portages or carrying-places in remote parts of the Ottawa, is navigable for canoes and boats ; upwards of 200 miles of it are navigable at long interstices, for steam-boats drawing from four to fifteen feet water, and a section of ninety miles, or the distance between Montreal and Three Rivers, is actually navigated by square-rigged vessels of various burdens, from 100 tons to 600."

The settlers along the left or lower Canadian bank of the Ottawa are chiefly British ; and though much of the land there is in a state of wilderness, and some of it marshy and subject to floodings during the rains and melting of the snows, it is in many places moderately fertile, better adapted for grazing than the countries higher up ; and though the climate is rather cold and moist, it is not very unhealthy unless in the swamps where organic remains are in a state of putrefaction. It is estimated that more than 70,000 persons might be comfortably located in that district alone. As Three Rivers are approached, the land in the immediate vicinity of the St. Lawrence is more occupied by French settlers, and consequently the townships disposable to British emigrants are in the rear and not so accessible.

The bank of the St. Lawrence, for a considerable portion of this extent is rich and beautiful, and so is the island of Montreal, and some of the smaller isles; but the inhabitants have been a little overzealous in cutting down the timber.

The second section on the north—that from the St. Maurice to the Seguenay, has a sea, or river coast of about 190 miles, at the middle of which the city of Quebec is situated. Above Quebec, the seigniories are settled to a considerable distance back, with the exception of Champlain and Cap la Magdalene, immediately to the eastward of the St. Maurice, which are sandy, barren, and hardly worth cultivating. In other places, the soil toward the river is moderately good; and it is *said* to improve in the interior. Eastward of Quebec, the general surface of the country is more elevated; and the valleys of the rivers that flow into the estuary of the St. Lawrence afford some fine scenery. The population of this section amounts to about 70,000. The interior of this section has been but recently explored by the British, and the settlements do not extend many miles to the northward of Quebec. It is full of streams and small lakes.

Of the third section, from the Seguenay eastward to Anee au Sablon, on the confines of Labra-

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dor, little is known except the coast, which extends along the estuary and gulf of the St. Lawrence for between 600 and 700 miles. Wolves and bears are the chief inhabitants. The hills are supposed to contain mines ; but the climate is far from inviting, and there is nothing to induce emigrants to settle in that part of the country. Rugged cliffs, not lofty enough for being grand, interspersed with forests or clumps of stunted pines and spruces that appear bent and twisted by the fury of the storms, are among the most characteristic features of that inhospitable section of northern Canada.

On the south side of the St. Lawrence there are also three convenient natural sections of the country. First, westward of the Chaudière, which falls into the St. Lawrence a little above Quebec ; secondly, the country from the Chaudière to the western frontier of the Gaspé district ; and thirdly, that district itself.

The section to the west of the Chaudière is a very interesting portion of the province. Its form is nearly triangular, having the American states of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York, on the south, along the parallel of 45° , the St. Lawrence on the north-west, and the remainder of southern Canada on the east. The general position of the

surface is a gradual slope from the high lands on the American frontier to the St. Lawrence; but various insulated hills prevent its character from being tame, and also supply it with water. The shores of the St. Lawrence are granted in seigniories, to a considerable distance from the river, so that the townships are in the vicinity of the United States, with which there is a water communication along Lake Champlain to the Hudson River at New York. Many parts of the section are rich land; but the British part of the population labour under some disadvantages; they want good roads, and they have people speaking a different language between them and the St. Lawrence. In some parts, too, there are extensive marshes and very close forests.

The second section, or that between the right bank of the Chaudière and the confines of Gaspé, is less valuable; and if the boundary claimed by the United States—that which includes, on their side, all the northern feeders of the upper part of the river St. John—is to be the ultimate one, it will be much smaller. That boundary cuts off more than a million and a half of acres. The hills of this part of Canada, approach within sixty miles of the St. Lawrence; but the population does not extend so far, being confined to a tract of about nine miles in breadth along the St. Lawrence and the

right bank of the Chaudière. The greater part of the interior is an absolute wilderness, and has not been even surveyed.

The third section on the south side of the estuary is the territory of Gaspé. There are some patches of good land on the coasts; but the interior is a thick forest, destitute of roads.

Such are the principal localities in Lower Canada; and perhaps the safest conclusion that can be drawn from the very short notice that has been taken of them is, that the country on the Ottawa is probably the most eligible part of the province for British emigrants, who resort to the country for the purpose of cultivating the soil, and supporting themselves and their families on the produce.

Upper Canada.

Upper Canada was separated from the lower province in 1791, chiefly on purpose that there might be one active colony in which the law of property might be the same as in England. The boundaries of the province, where they are in the meantime of much importance, are very definite: the centre of the St. Lawrence, of the great lakes, and of their connecting narrows and streams, from the boundary between and the United States, till

the distance westward into the wilderness becomes so great, that a few miles one way or the other, are not, in the meantime, much worth disputing about. With the exception of a small corner toward the St. Lawrence, which, having been granted in seigniorage, it was desirable to include in the lower province; the Ottawa forms an equally definite boundary on the north-east, and the other boundaries are in the wilderness. That toward the north may however be considered as being definite, being the water-shed between the sources of the streams that flow toward the lakes or the St. Lawrence, and those flow toward Hudson's Bay. The whole extent of surface in Upper Canada exceeds 21,000,000 of acres; and the following are the chief subdivisions:—

Districts.	Counties.	Townships.	Population 1830.
Eastern	3	12	19,755
Ottawa	2	12	3,833
Johnstown	2	18	20,417
Bathurst	2	19	16,005
Midland	4	40	34,190
Newcastle	2	30	14,951
Home	2	52	28,565
Gore	2	21	20,945
Niagara	2	17	20,916
London	4	33	22,803
Western	2	23	9,288
11	27	277	211,668

Each township is estimated as containing about 61,600 acres, which gives a total of more than 17,000,000. Of these about 7,000,000 are already granted, four of 500,000 are reserved, and there are 5,500,000 still to grant.

There are three natural divisions of Upper Canada, formed by two ridges of hills, or at least elevations. The first ridge forms the south-western boundary of what may be called the valley of the Ottawa; and the second ridge separates the streams that flow northward into Lake Simcoe and Lake Huron, from those that flow southward into Lake Ontario.

The eastern division, as marked by these ridges, comprises the Eastern district, and the districts of Ottawa, Johnstown, Midland, and Bathurst.

Situated between two great rivers, and being nowhere very elevated, that part of the province is fertile; but it abounds in marshes and swamps. In the eastern part the summit level is much nearer the St. Lawrence than the Ottawa. Beginning at the frontier of Lower Canada, the eastern and Johnstown districts skirt the bank of the St. Lawrence; and the Ottawa, Bathurst, and Midland districts that of the Ottawa, the last however extending as far south as Lake Ontario, and along the shore of that lake to the river Trent on the

borders of Newcastle. It is probable that the most salubrious part of this division may be in the Midland district, higher up the Ottawa than the junction of the Madawaska, as there are hills there; but the climate must be more severe than toward Lake Ontario.

The centre division contains the Newcastle and the Home districts, occupying about 120 miles on the north shore of Lake Ontario. The Newcastle district extends indefinitely toward the forests on the upper part of the Ottawa; and the Home district extends toward the shores of the Georgian Bay of Lake Huron. Lake Simcoe, which discharges its waters into the said bay through the river Severn, would be a large lake in any other country than Canada. It is at least fifty miles long, and thirty at its greatest breadth. The interior of that part of the country has not been very carefully explored, but the probability is that it abounds in small lakes and swamps.

The remaining, or third division, to the westward of the second ridge, contains the Gore, Niagara, London, and Western districts. It is of an irregular triangular form, having the Home district, Lake Ontario, and the river Niagara on the east, Lake Erie on the south, and Lake St. Clair, the Narrows, and Lake Huron on the west. With the exception of the

elevated ridge (which after all is not more than 590 feet in elevation), there are no mountains in it; and though it contains several rivers, water does not abound so much in it, as in most other parts of Upper Canada.

Such are the principal divisions of the Canadas; they are just hinted at so far as that the reader may understand and apply the few general remarks in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V.

NATURAL CHARACTERS OF BRITISH
AMERICA.

To the labouring or agricultural emigrant, who resorts to a new country in order to derive from its natural capabilities and resources, when called forth by his labour, that pure reward, comfort, and prospect of bettering the condition of himself and his family, which had been denied to him by the artificial and highly improved state of the country which he left or intends to leave, this is a subject of far more importance than mere situation. Health is the foundation of every thing, and therefore the very first question to which a satisfactory answer should be sought is, "Is the country to which he purposes to go healthy?" That is a far more important question to the man who is to emigrate than to the man who is to stay at home. At home, there is help of some sort at hand : there

is a friend to look in, or there is, humiliating though it be, the parish workhouse. But in the Canadian forest, the nearest friend may be twenty miles off, and there is not even a workhouse. To be sure there is the certainty of food, and there is labour in the open air, and cheerful labour, because the man has all the good of it himself; and these are far from the worst preventives of disease. It is a fact, that disease very seldom attacks a man when he is warm working, if his heart go with the work, and he do not over-exert himself and be obliged to stop.

After the healthiness, perhaps the very next questions in importance, are these that relate to fire and water. "Is fuel plentiful and accessible? Is water pure, and the supply constant?" They who live in some of the bleak gravelly districts, or over the dull clayey sand, where there is nothing upon or under the earth that will burn, no not so much as a black heath-turf the thickness of a pancake, can estimate the blessing of a ready fire, for art or for warmth; and they who live upon the tough clays, where, in the summer heats, the surface of the ground rings like an anvil, and the small remnant of water in the clay-pit is green with mud, and alive with the larvæ of insects, can tell how delightful it would be to have a little

fountain bubbling in crystal from the rock, or a gallant river racing by at the garden's end.

What the earth will return to reward the cultivation, is another important inquiry; and connected with it there are the characters of the seasons, and the times and manner of their changes. These have reference not only to what is to be grown upon the land, but also to the kind of habitations and clothing, and the period of the year at which it is most profitable for the settlers to begin their operations.

The lengths of the different seasons, and the rapidity and extent of their several changes, are also matters of very great importance. If the change be gradual, as it is in the southerly and low-lying parts of England, field-work of some kind or other may be carried on throughout the whole year; but if the summer and winter be comparatively long, and the spring and autumn short, agricultural labour will be more hurried, and require more hands during those seasons, while there will be leisure in the other parts of the year. It may be considered, that winter and summer are longer, in proportion, in new countries than in old ones having the same latitude; and thus the hands which in such countries are required additional in the fields in spring and in autumn, are useful during the summer and winter in procuring fuel, repairing buildings, and making and

mending the necessary implements. If the fuel is turf, the summer is the season for winning it; but if wood, winter is decidedly the time, as wood grubbed in the inactive state, is better fuel than when grubbed in growth. This holds not only of those trees that shed their leaves in winter, but also of the pines and other evergreens, which contain a much greater quantity of water in the summer season, and thus have much more of the heat which is produced by combustion, wasted in converting that water into steam.

If the winter be severe, whether there be or be not snow permanently on the ground during the keen frosts, is an important consideration to the cultivator. When open frosts prevail, crops sown in autumn stand the winter upon very few soils, and even the perennial grasses are seriously injured. In such weather too, turnips and other bulbous and tuberous roots suffer, more especially if there be sunshine during the days. If a covering of snow lies upon the ground, those evils are in a great measure obviated, as that snow not only preserves the crops that may be in the ground, but also prevents the soil itself from being chilled by the immediate contact of the cold air. It is true that if the snow lies to a considerable depth, there is an end of all grazing for domestic animals during the period of its con-

tinuance ; but if the snow melts rapidly, which it generally does if it lies as long as the month of April, it is almost immediately followed by very rich and succulent herbage. When snow melts thus rapidly, if the beds of the rivers are not all the deeper, and their currents the more rapid, there are apt to be spring floods, which render it inconvenient to have winter crops on the rich bottoms near the rivers ; but the loss thereby sustained is to a considerable extent made up by the deposition of new soil left by the floods.

Another important inquiry for the settler is, what are the direct natural products that the country is to yield ? What timber is there for domestic purposes or for fuel ? What fruits, seeds, or roots, are eatable ? What animals may be procured by the gun or otherwise, and what is the value of their flesh, their skin, their fur, or their feathers ? What do the rivers yield in respect of fish ? and how, when necessity requires, may the said rivers and their tributary streams be employed for water-carriage and for water-power ? These, and a variety of other questions connected with the nature of the country, are necessary to be considered, with respect to the individual emigrant's own comfort in his locality ; and previous altogether to any consideration connected with society and its arts, and the consequent de-

pendance of the several members of the community upon each other. To solve all those questions in detail, is more than the compass of any one volume, or the life of any one man could embrace ; and as the different ones vary in importance, with the views of individuals as well as with the characters of places, a selection of the details of a few would be of very little use. A few general sketches, however, may be of some service ; and a person of ordinary intelligence can fill up the details for himself.

SECTION I.—GENERAL ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY.

Leaving out of the consideration the islands, and Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, as far as the Bay of Chaleurs, British America may be considered as occupying the whole of the lower part of the valley of the St. Lawrence, and the northern portion of the upper part of that valley and the plains of the great lakes. That portion of the country which lies on the south of the St. Lawrence has its general slope toward the north ; and that which lies on the north has its general slope toward the south ; but as the upper country (which may be seen in the map) is very much broken into peninsulas by the lakes, and as the river Ottawa is of great length and magnitude, the particular slopes

of correspondingly large portions must be toward these.

Some parts of Canada are hilly; but there are scarcely any that have a decidedly mountainous character; and those that approach to that character, are remote from the St. Lawrence, or still unsettled.

On the northern side of the St. Lawrence a ridge of heights, which may be considered as a continuation of those of Labrador, extends westward close by the estuary, and forms rugged banks as far as Cape Tourment, about thirty-five miles below Quebec. From that point it follows the course of the St. Lawrence westward for about 300 miles, leaving a plain of from fifteen to thirty miles in breadth. That tract of country is sheltered from the north, well watered, level, fertile, and beautiful; and it forms great part of the old French grants in Lower Canada. When the junction of the Ottawa is approached, those mountains or hills, turn to the north-west, and approach the bank of the Ottawa at about 100 miles from its junction with the St. Lawrence. Thence the ridge proceeds northward toward the heights that separate the northern part of Canada from the Hudson's Bay Company's territory.

About 200 miles inland from the last-mentioned

ridge, there is another and, generally speaking, a more elevated one, which divides the sources of the tributaries of the St. Lawrence from those of the Hudson's Bay rivers. The extensive back-country between those two ridges is not, properly speaking, a valley, but rather a table-land of irregular surface, and most of the rivers that descend from the Canada side of it have falls and rapids. It contains no settlers; but is one extensive forest, interspersed with rocks, barren summits, and marshes, and frequented only by a few hordes of wandering Indians, and by the agents of the Hudson's Bay Company, who resort thither in summer to purchase skins of the Indians. The characters and the capabilities of that part of the country are very little known.

On the south side of the St. Lawrence, an elevated ridge commences about 100 miles below Quebec, and proceeds in a south-westerly direction, being about thirty miles distant from the river when opposite to the city. Thence it turns southerly along the eastern bank of the Chaudière, toward the sources of that river.

Beyond this ridge, and about fifty miles inland of it, there is another and loftier elevation, to which the name of the Highlands, or Land's Height, is given, because it divides the waters that flow to

the estuary of the St. Lawrence from those that flow to the Ristigauche and the St. John. This last ridge may be traced from Cape Rosiere, the eastmost point of Gaspé to the sources of the Connecticut River, about latitude 45° and longitude 71° , which is an extent of about 400 miles. It meets the former ridge on the upper part of the Chaudière; and the country between them, like the hilly part of the north, is but little known. The shores of the St. Lawrence and banks of the Chaudière are for some miles fertile and thickly settled. As, from the sources of the Connecticut River, the Canadian boundary extends westward on the parallel of 45° to Regis on the St. Lawrence, the summit level, which is, however, no great elevation, passes southward into the territory of the United States; and the whole of Canada between the parallel of 45° and the St. Lawrence is a gentle slope, diversified, however, by occasional elevations. Many parts of it are fertile, and the climate is very good.

In Upper Canada there is hardly any marking of the country by mountain ridges. The height to the northward of Lake Ontario is very trifling; and the limestone ridge, and the Queenston heights, which may be traced westward along the southern shore of Lake Ontario; the cutting of which by the

water, forms the great gulf below the Fall of Niagara, the remaining breast of which occasions the fall itself, and which may be traced into the State of New York, is the only portion of the country between Lake Erie and the Georgian Bay of Lake Huron, that can be considered as at all hilly. There are dry lands and moist lands, infertile prairies and rich bottoms, in various parts of the district; but the prairies are downs and not hills, and they owe their dryness and infertility more to the porous nature of the subsoil than to their elevation.

Glancing back at what has been stated, the following are the general features of the Canadas: in Lower Canada, the back country in the north is hilly desert; and so is that in the south as far as the river Chaudière. Both those districts abound in forests of large trees in the bottoms, and stunted ones on the hills; but these in general stand where they are inaccessible, and therefore useless. As there are no inducements to the agriculturist in either of these districts, the emigrant may omit them in his consideration of the Canadas. The country on the north side of the St. Lawrence, eastward of Quebec, and on the banks of the estuary, is hilly and picturesque; but the patches of land fit for profitable cultivation are comparatively few. On

the south side of the river, the patches of good land are more abundant; but they are detached from each other, and there is a great want of roads. The valley of the St. Lawrence, as far as Lower Canada extends, is fertile and well watered; but the most valuable parts of it, namely, those immediately adjoining the river and its navigable branches, are chiefly occupied in seigniories by French Canadians.

The valley of the Ottawa is not so wide as that of the St. Lawrence, and it is more irregular and broken by hills; but it in consequence affords finer situations for rural buildings, and admits of more varied culture. The lower parts of it flood more, during the melting of the snows, than those of the St. Lawrence.

From the junction of the Ottawa to Kingston, at the bottom of Lake Ontario, the country on the St. Lawrence is very flat, only a few feet above the level of the water in the river. The back country there is full of swamps; and as the upper part of the Ottawa is approached, there are hills. With few exceptions, the whole of Upper Canada may be regarded as an alluvial deposit; gravel and sand in the dry places, and clay, of various degrees of consistency, in the others.

SECTION II.—RIVERS AND LAKES.

The waters of every country are important features of it; but there are few countries in which they are so very important as in the Canadas.

The St. Lawrence claims the chief notice, although for a great part of its extent and its continuation through the lakes, it is merely the boundary of the British territory. Though the St. Lawrence is by no means the largest river on the globe, yet if we take into consideration the lakes through which it passes, it is certainly the largest accumulation of fresh water any where to be met with; and its estuary and gulf are proportionally large as compared with those of most rivers. The whole length, lakes and all, cannot be estimated at less than 200 miles; and as the very largest lakes (Superior, Huron, and Michigan,) are near the source of the river, the St. Lawrence, whenever it narrows so as to have a current and be considered a river, rolls onward a vast body of water.

There is one remarkable feature in the valley of the St. Lawrence, in which it differs from those of many other great rivers, and would lead us to suppose that the emptying of a series of lakes has brought the country into its present state. The

great lakes toward the source of the St. Lawrence occupy almost the summit level of that part of the country, the sources of the rivers that flow southward being but at a short distance southward, and those that flow to the north at no great distance to the northward. In the lower part of the valley too, the first ridges of mountains are very near the river on both sides, and it is possible that they may have at one time been united below Quebec so as to lay not only the lower part of the valley but great part of the alluvial land in Upper Canada under water. That however is a subject more interesting to the naturalist than to the emigrant; although an emigrant will find a moderate degree of natural knowledge more serviceable to him than any other kind of knowledge, in a country where nature and natural productions must form both his business and his pleasure. At its mouth, between Gaspé and the opposite shore, the St. Lawrence is at least ninety miles broad; and at the mouth of the Saguenay about 120 miles below Quebec, which is 260 miles up the river, its breadth is eighteen miles: 400 miles of it are navigable for ships of the line, and vessels of 600 tons burden may without much difficulty ascend to Montreal, which is about 160 miles farther. For vessels larger than this, the navigation is intricate, in con-

sequence of the number of islands and shoals, and the currents that set between them.

The falls of the Niagara may be considered as dividing the navigation of the St. Lawrence into two equal parts. Above the falls there is an inland navigation, having no direct intercourse with the sea; but there is scope enough for navigation of any burden. The distance from Lake Erie to the head of the falls is about twenty miles, and the descent is fifteen feet for nineteen and a half miles, and fifty-one feet for the last half mile; so that to approach within that distance of the falls is exceedingly dangerous. The fall is accompanied by a remarkable bend and contraction in the river, and when the limestone bank between the fall and Queenston is examined, it becomes evident that the fall has once been much higher than it is now. The top of the limestone heights about a mile from Queenston is about 350 feet above the surface of the river, and that at the present falls including the rapid is only 200. The channel, too, is in many parts less than one-fourth the width of the present fall, so that in former times the action of the water must have been tremendous, and the cutting through the strata must have been proportionally great. The fall is divided into two parts by Goat Island; the portion on the American side is

by much the higher ; and thus the rapid above the fall in it, is not so violent as it is in the northern or main fall, which has worn the rock into a horse-shoe form. One hundred and sixty-two feet is the present height of the American side of the fall ; 104 feet the descent of the rapid in the narrow from the base of the fall to Queenston, two feet more from Queenston to Lake Ontario, to which, adding the sixteen feet of descent from Lake Erie to the head of the falls, gives a total of 344 feet difference of elevation between the upper navigation of the St. Lawrence and the lower. That is, of course, a complete bar to the river navigation, as craft cannot enter even the rapid below the fall, but the transport of goods may be effected by the Welland Canal, from the mouth of the river Ouse on Lake Erie, to Lake Ontario.

The navigation of Lake Ontario is fit for vessels of any burden ; but between that lake and Montreal there are rapids, and difficult channels, and in some places the main channel of the river is under the control of the Americans. From Lake Ontario downward, the river expands into several smaller lakes ; and these lakes, as well as many parts of the river itself, are very beautifully studded with islands. The Lake of the Thousand Isles, at the bottom of Lake Ontario, is very beauti-

ful; and after it the Lakes of St. Francis and St. Louis follow in succession. Immediately below St. Louis there is the *Sault* or rapid of San Louis, which is passed with considerable difficulty. The island of Montreal, which is of considerable extent and very tastefully and highly cultivated, occupies the centre of another lake; and, near Three Rivers, the St. Lawrence expands into Lake St. Pierre, the largest below Lake Ontario. The St. Lawrence may be considered as affording an uninterrupted ship and steam-boat navigation throughout the whole length of Lower Canada, and a passage, surmountable by boats with some assistance in the ascents, along the boundary of Upper Canada as far as Lake Ontario. Lake Ontario again forms a ship and steam-boat navigation, and more navigations occur on the lakes of the higher level.

The second river is the Ottawa, which may be traced nearly 400 miles toward the mountains. Not far from its junction with the St. Lawrence, that is at Point Fortune, the Ottawa is interrupted by rapids which render the ascent difficult, and at Grenville the descent becomes more rapid in the Long Sault, which requires all the skill of the Canadian boatmen. A canal is in progress to overcome this impediment. For sixty miles farther, to Hull, at the confluence of the Rideau River, there

is an uninterrupted navigation in a wide and placid channel; and immediately above these, are the falls of Chaudière, or the Cauldron. The total extent of fall there is about sixty feet, so that there is a total interruption to navigation. Above those falls, the river expands into the Lake of Chaudière and Des Chats; and farther up there are successive rapids and falls, so that though many parts of the Ottawa are well adapted for local communication, it could not easily be converted into a general navigation.

The other Canadian rivers are chiefly tributaries of those that have been mentioned, or they fall into the lakes.

The branches of the Ottawa, the chief of which fall into it on the eastern or Lower Canada side, are, like the Ottawa itself, interrupted by many rapids and falls which, in an improved state of the country, will be highly advantageous for driving machinery. The principal ones are, the Calumet, the Petite Nation (one on each bank), the two rivers Blanche, the Aux Lievres, and Gatineau.

The Calumet flows through the country of the Two Mountains; it is deep and rapid, and abounds with fish, but though the breadth is sixty or seventy feet, it is navigable only for a few miles. The falls on it may in time be valuable. There are quarries of marble, or mountain limestone, on some parts of its banks.

The Petite Nation has a southern course of about 100 miles, the whole of which is rapid and unfit for navigation, excepting a few miles toward its junction with the Ottawa. At the head of the navigable part there are saw mills, where a great quantity of the timber, with which the interior of this part of the country abounds, is sawed for domestic purposes. The planks and other forms into which the timber is cut, are sent down from the mills to the navigable part of the river, in a wooden canal, 2400 feet in length. The timber thus prepared is floated in rafts as far as Quebec.

The great river Blanche has a course of about 100 miles; for the lowest fifteen of which it is navigable during the spring floods; but the upper part is rapid. Like the last-mentioned river, it is much employed in floating timber towards the Ottawa.

The Gatineau rises in some lakes of considerable size towards the Hudson's Bay country, and enters the Ottawa a little below Hull. Steam-boats can ascend it for four or five miles; but then there occur rapids which prevent the descent of timber by the river. Above those rapids the river again becomes navigable for the canoes of the Indians, and is said to continue so for a distance of 300 miles. The Gatineau is by much the largest

branch of the Ottawa, its confluence with that river is nearly opposite to that of the Rideau, which is the largest branch of the river on the western side,—at least, the largest that has been examined. If, however, the country shall ever become sufficiently peopled, it is possible that a water communication may be opened between the Ottawa and Lake Huron through Nipissing Lake, the absolute distance being not above 120 miles, and there being water the greater part of the way. The number of rivers that fall into the Ottawa, especially from the east, the length of their courses, the rapidity of their currents, and the size and value of the timber in the back country, are very favourable indications of this part of Canada. As the larger branches fall into the lower part of the Ottawa, the floods and freshets (floods produced by the melting of the snow in spring) rise much higher there than in the upper parts of the river. Unless at particular spots, as about Point Fortune, the immediate banks of the Ottawa are rather tame; but at a little distance the country on the eastern side is finely diversified.

From the mouth of the Ottawa to Three Rivers, the branches of the St. Lawrence, though numerous, are of smaller dimensions. The St. Maurice, which falls in at the town of Three Rivers, is of

considerable magnitude, and may be considered as the third branch, in point of size, which the St. Lawrence receives from the north. The St. Maurice has many branches, and many small lakes are connected with it. The banks are steep, and the soil on the surface, sandy, and clothed with forests of pine. This river is navigable in some places, but very much interrupted by rapids. The lower part of the river is shallow, but some of the still places farther up have a depth of at least forty fathoms.

The Saguenay to the eastward of Quebec, is a very large river, and remarkable for its depth. At its mouth it is a mile in breadth, and has been sounded with 500 fathoms of line, without any bottom being met with. Generally speaking, though the river is large, it is too rapid for being available in navigation, though it is accessible for vessels of any size for about twenty-two leagues to Ha-ha Bay.

As the hills are near the St. Lawrence, in all the parts of Lower Canada, southward of the river, and to the eastward of Quebec, there are no streams of any consequence in that part of the country. Above the city, where the summit level is farther from the bank of the St. Lawrence, the rivers are of greater magnitude. The principal ones are the Chaudière, which has already been mentioned as falling into the St. Lawrence a little above Quebec ;

the Becancour, a little below ; and the Nicolet, a little above the mouth of the St. Maurice, the St. Francois, and the Yamasca, both into Lake St. Pierre ; the Richelieu from Lake Champlain, into the upper part of the same ; and the Chateauguay, opposite Montreal Island.

Of these rivers, the only one which deserves particular notice is the Richelieu, as it affords an immediate communication between Canada and the United States. It is about 150 yards wide at its mouth ; and navigable for vessels of 150 tons burden for twelve or fourteen miles. Above that there are interruptions, which might, however, be removed. The upper part of the river is rapid, so that the descent from Lake Champlain is more easily performed than the return. There is much traffic upon the river, in rafts of timber, in potash, flour, and various other articles of produce.

In Upper Canada, the rivers are, from the form of the country and the absence of mountains, much smaller, though their courses are in general beautifully winding, and they are consequently highly useful as well as ornamental to the districts through which they pass. Besides the Rideau, already mentioned, the principal explored branch of the Ottawa in Upper Canada, is the Madawaska, which is supposed to rise within a very short distance of the

remotest sources of the Trent. The Trent winds through the Newcastle district, and discharges its waters into the Bay of Quinté and Lake Ontario. It is the only river of consequence which falls into that lake.

Into Lake Erie, there falls only one river of consequence, the Ouse. It rises in the back country, about sixty miles north-west of York, and, after a winding course of more than 100 miles, falls into Lake Erie about thirty miles westward of the mouth of the Niagara River.

The only other river which it is necessary to mention in a mere sketch, is the Thames. It flows south-westward for nearly the same length as the Ouse, and empties itself into Lake St. Clair.

Although from the peninsular form of Upper Canada, and the character of the country as being alluvial and destitute of mountains, it is tolerably well watered by minor streams.

Almost all the rivers in Canada, both Upper and Lower, abound with fish; though in many cases salmon are confined to the portions below the falls and rapids.

The great Canadian lakes deserve a few words of general notice. Lake Ontario is about 220 feet higher than the level of tide water in the estuary of the St. Lawrence; so that, notwithstanding its

rapids, that is the whole of its descent, from Queenston to the sea. Lake Ontario is about 183 miles long, and forty-two miles broad; and as the depth is in some places 450 feet, these are 230 lower than the tide-way, and consequently no wearing down of the bed of the river could ever empty Lake Ontario. Lake Erie, which is 334 feet above Lake Ontario, and consequently 564 above the tide of the ocean, is about 270 miles long, and twenty-five wide, on an average. Its depth is much less than that of Lake Ontario, being only about 220 feet where deepest; so that it might be entirely emptied by the destruction of the neck of land at Niagara.

From Lake Erie to Lakes Huron and Michigan, through the Detroit River and Lake St. Clair, which may be considered as being on nearly the same level, there is not a rise of above thirty feet. Lake Huron, the first of these, is 250 miles long, 120 miles broad, stands about 584 feet above the level of the ocean, and has a depth of 860 feet. It is very much broken with bays, and abounds with large and fertile islands.

Lake Superior is connected with Lake Huron by the strait of St. Mary, a passage about forty miles long, and having a descent of only thirty-two feet. But such is the pressure occasioned by the great body of water in the lake, that about the middle of the

passage the current gets the name, and displays the foam and noise of a fall. It cannot be ascended; and the descent, from the extreme agitation of the water and the rapidity of its motion, is an undertaking of considerable hazard. Lake Superior is thus about 616 feet above the level of the tide in the ocean; and as its depth is reported to be in some places 930 feet, it is, of course, more than 300 feet below the tide-way. That, however, is no unusual thing in lakes; for Loch Ness, in Scotland, which is not many feet above the level of the sea, nor many miles from it, and the intermediate space wholly gravel, is in some places 780 feet deep, which exceeds the depth of any part of the sea between Britain and the shores of the opposite continent.

Different authorities state the dimensions of Lake Superior so differently, that the probability is, that not one of them is nearly correct,—indeed, a survey of all the lakes, and of most of the rivers, and much of the land in Canada, is very much wanted; but from the nature of the country, through great part of which surveyors have absolutely to cut their way with the axe, and where stations cannot be seen from each other, accurate surveying is no easy matter. The average of the dimensions given to Lake Superior, are, a length of about 380 miles, and a

breadth of about 160. The shores give evidence that, at some time, this lake has stood higher than its present level;—perhaps, forty or fifty feet higher. The shores chiefly consist of clean sand, and the water is beautifully transparent, at a little distance from the shore; the bottom is fine clay, mixed with shells.

Extensive as these lakes are, there is none of them of sufficient magnitude to have tides; but they are subject to differences of elevation, arising from floods, from the action of winds, and from differences of atmospherical pressure. They are subject to violent storms; and as fresh water is of less specific gravity than that of the ocean, the waves are of a more tumbling and splashing character, and the hold which vessels take of the water, is with the same depth of draught much less steady. Those who navigate sailing vessels skilfully upon the lakes, require to be bred to that particular kind of navigation.

SECTION III.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND WEATHER.

The inhabited part of Canada lies between the parallels of 42° and 48° of latitude, or the same as the southern and central parts of Europe; and if

we were to suppose that the seasons depend upon latitude alone, we would be led to conclude that they should be the same in Canada, and that a removal to Upper Canada would be the same as one to the south of France. Such a conclusion would, however, be a very erroneous one, because climate is affected by many circumstances, besides that of mere geographical position and latitude. The winter throughout the greater part of Europe is rendered much milder than it otherwise would be, by the current of warm air which generally sets in from the south-west, and also by the current of warm water, brought round by the circulating tides of the Atlantic. The summer, on the other hand, is made more temperate by the varied surface, the lofty mountains and deep vallies, and the currents of air at different temperatures, and the consequent showers and evaporations that are produced by those. Thus the local surface and the action of the Atlantic conspire to blend together the seasons in southern and western Europe; and it is only to the northward of the Carpathian mountains, and to the eastward of the Baltic, that the climate approximates that of northern America, in the length and severity of winter, the shortness of the spring, and the heat and drought of the summer. In Canada there is hardly any elevation that deserves the

name of a mountain. We have seen that the general rise of the country, from Quebec to Lake Superior, is little more than 600 feet, and few portions of the elevated ridges that have been described, much exceed that elevation. Canada may, therefore, be considered as a plain, having its climate almost entirely dependant on geographical position, unless in so far as that is counteracted by the forests. Accordingly, taking the line of the St. Lawrence, the climate gets warmer and warmer, as we proceed toward the south-west. At Quebec apples grow abundantly, but the climate is too cold for peaches and grapes; at Montreal, which is rather more than a degree farther south, peaches and grapes come to very considerable perfection; and in the western districts of Upper Canada, those fruits are found in the most luxuriant state.

There is another circumstance which has some effect upon the climate of the different parts of Canada. In the countries to the north-east, including Greenland and the whole range of the western part of the polar ice, much of the summer heat is absorbed in the melting of ice and snow; and thus the summer atmosphere in those regions is colder than from the latitude we would be led to expect. As the air over Lower Canada begins to be heated it ascends, and its place is supplied by this colder and more dense air from the north-

east. That air produces fogs over the warm surface, which do not reach the Upper province, and which are indeed more decidedly felt on the north bank of the St. Lawrence than on the south, because southward, the fog-producing quality of the air begins to be exerted at the banks of Newfoundland, and it is also turned northward by the current of warm water and warm air along with it, which sets northward into the Bay of Fundy. It is only in the spring and partially in the autumn, when the surface of the earth is warmer than the air which passes over it, that those fogs are experienced, for in winter and generally also in the summer the atmosphere is clear; and in Upper Canada there are no fogs but local ones.

A fair estimate of heat and cold, and of the quantities of rain and fair weather in a country, cannot be taken in a manner perfectly satisfactory without having a series of accurate observations for a period of at least nineteen years. There is probably no such table for the Canadas, at least, there is none such published; and therefore we must be contented with one year, the year 1820, as an approximation which may perhaps be near enough for general purposes.

In the very southern part of Upper Canada, that is at Lake Erie, in about latitude 42° , the lowest temperature was about -20° , or 52° below

freezing, and this was in January. The highest temperature was 103° , and that was in July. Thus the variation of temperature for the whole year was 123° . The mean temperature of the day for the same year was about 74° ; and the mean temperature of the night about 26° , giving a mean annual temperature of about 50° .

Comparing these observations with the corresponding latitude in Europe, which is very nearly that of Rome, we find that the average temperature of the year is 10° lower in Upper Canada, that of Rome being 60° . There is seldom any ice at Rome, so that the lowest temperature there in winter may be taken at 32° , which is 53° above that of Upper Canada, and the summer temperature must be lower in proportion in Canada. So that in Upper Canada there is an Indian summer and a Lapland winter.

In respect of humidity, the absolute quantity that falls in rain or in snow is not stated, but the numbers of days of fair and of foul weather are given. Two hundred and fourteen days of clear sky, sixty-two cloudy, fifty-five of rain, and thirty-four of snow. November, December, January, and February are the months in which there is the most snow; and March, June, and October those in which there is the most rain. April and July are the clearest months; but the rain from April

to October is, with the exception of June, pretty equally distributed. Indeed, the whole distribution of humidity is so uniform that it must be highly favourable to vegetation and also to health, if not counteracted by some circumstance in the soil. The difference of temperature between the summer and the winter is not in itself unhealthy; and the one is corrected by the rain, of which there is more than one day in the week on an average, and the other by the dry atmosphere. Though they are drawn only from one year's observations, these conclusions are of great importance. In a country so uniform as Upper Canada one year cannot vary essentially from another; and therefore we have evidence that, if the ground is properly cleared and drained, there must be both fertility and health.

Though the frost is sometimes so severe in Upper Canada, the winter is not of very long duration. The time that the ground is completely covered with snow is not more than two months in the warmer places; and three months may be taken as the average period of the suspension of field labour during the winter. These months are December, January and February, and it is generally in January when the cold is most intense, and in February when the weather is most stormy. Even in

these months, however, at least every third day is clear, and not one above every third is snowy; so that the winter, though keen, cannot be regarded as injurious.

Descending into Lower Canada, the climate becomes more rigorous, though there are fewer days of cloudy, or rainy, or snowy weather. At the southern extremity of Lower Canada, that is, about latitude 45° , in the year alluded to, the lowest temperature, which happened in February, was -29° , or 61° below freezing; and the lowest temperatures for the other winter months were respectively -13° for November, -21° for December, -23° for January, and -26° for March; so that there could be no vegetation during these five months. The greatest summer heat which took place in July, as in Upper Canada, was 103° , making a range of temperature for the whole year of 132° , or 9° greater than in Upper Canada. The mean temperature of the day for the year was about 68° , and that for the night rather less than 12° ; and June, July, and August were the only months during which the temperature was not at sometime below freezing. The mean temperature of the year was about 42° , which is at least 16° below the calculation for the same parallel in Europe, and nearly the same as that of Lapland at the northern extremity of the Gulf of Bothnia.

The quantity, or at least the duration of the fall of rain and snow, was much less than in Upper Canada:—256 were clear, 53 cloudy, 35 rain, and 21 snow. The greatest fall of rain appears to have been in August and September; the greatest fall of snow in November, June and December the clearest months, and the remaining months pretty uniform.

The temperature of this southern boundary of Lower Canada may seem to be severe, but it is nothing to that which Captain Franklin experienced at Fort Enterprize in latitude $64^{\circ} 28'$, which according to the table should average about 40° for the year. There the lowest temperature was 16° below freezing in September, 37° below freezing in October, 63° below freezing in November, 89° below freezing in December, 81° below freezing in January, 83° below freezing in February, 81° below freezing in March, 64° below freezing in April, and 24° below freezing in May. The temperature for the remaining three months is not taken, but that of the night for those nine was -27° ; and that for the day 30° , so that the mean temperature of the nine months was 0° , or 32° below freezing. The temperature at which mercury becomes solid and may be hammered on an anvil is 37° . From December to March inclusive the lowest temperature was considerably below that; and in Decem-

ber it exceeded the effect of any of the freezing mixtures which are known to chemists—except perhaps that of snow and muriate of lime.

Still descending into Lower Canada, the temperature in winter becomes more intense. In all the Quebec district, winter lasts from the middle of November to the end of April ; which is five months and a half. In the Montreal district the commencement of winter is two or three weeks later, and that of spring two or three weeks earlier, so that four months may be considered as the average duration of the winter there ; and it may also be taken as the average of all Canada. The heat in summer at Quebec is seldom above 97° , and perhaps 90° may be about the highest in the average of years. It does not appear also that the extreme cold there is so great as in the interior parts of the province.

The quantity of snow that falls in Canada is not so great as that in countries which are much warmer and have a shorter winter. It does not on the average of seasons exceed six feet ; but the temporary falls are heavy and often accompanied by violent winds, more especially in the month of February. Small as this quantity of snow is, it serves as a protecting mantle to the earth and to vegetation, which would be rendered almost unproductive

if exposed naked to the rigour of so inclement an atmosphere. At the same time the snow, and the ice on the streams, rivers, and lakes, facilitate communication between the different parts of the country. The people travel in a sort of sledges, vernacularly termed *sleighs*, which are a species of carriage bodies mounted on iron skates. Two horses are usually yoked tandem, and the travellers drive over the snow and ice with considerable rapidity, and, well wrapt up in furs as they are, with very little inconvenience from the intense cold of the dry and pure air.

The rapidity with which the winter snow melts, is in proportion to the length of time that it lies on the ground; so that at Quebec there is very little interval between winter and summer; while, as the country is ascended, the spring, and also the autumn, becomes longer and longer. When the snow and ice are partially melted, travelling becomes both disagreeable and dangerous, as sleigh, horses, travellers and all, are apt to get immersed in the snow water before they are aware. At that time too the "freshets," or snow floods, begin to inundate the low ground; boards of ice are carried along crashing against each other, in the rivers and down the rapids and falls; and soon after, floating icebergs make their appearance in the

gulf of St. Lawrence and are hazardous to shipping, and injurious to vegetation at places where they happen to ground on the shores.

The prevailing winds in Canada take the direction of the river, or rather of the rivers, the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa. The St. Lawrence winds are, the north-east and the south-west. The former is a cold wind and in itself dry; the latter is a warm wind, and moist. By dry is understood that the wind absorbs moisture from the surfaces over which it passes, and by moist, that it has no such tendency. Winds of the former description are always disagreeable and more or less unhealthy, as the skin of the human body is both parched and chilled by the evaporation: winds of the latter kind are generally speaking pleasant and healthy. Rain and snow usually fall when the north-east wind blows along the surface; but still, as is the case in Britain, it is out of the south-west wind that the humidity, which forms both the rain and the snow, comes. The wind of the Ottawa is a north wind. It is intensely cold, but, as it meets the south-west current obliquely, and tends not to arrest but to shift it southwards, it is usually dry in Canada, though it produces rain and very frequently snow in the United States, even a considerable way southward, and when the summer is

far advanced. This is a beneficial state of things for the Canadians, who thus escape those summer blights, which are often injurious to their southern neighbours.

The Canadian summer is often accompanied by severe storms of thunder and lightning. As there are no lofty ridges and peaks to attract the atmospheric vapours, those thunder storms are frequently very violent and sometimes do considerable injury. They are most frequent in the neighbourhood of Quebec: Upper Canada, with the exception of occasional storms and tornadoes, and whirlwinds, and waterspouts, upon the lakes, is comparatively a tranquil country; and perhaps there is no country having so flat a surface that has so clear an atmosphere.

SECTION IV.—NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.

The natural productions of any country may be arranged into the three divisions of mineral, vegetation and animal; and that arrangement may be conveniently followed in giving a short sketch of the Canadas.

Minerals.

The useful minerals hitherto discovered, or probably discoverable in the Canadas, are very few,

and will never add very much to the wealth of the country. The northern mountains are all of primary formation,—granite, gniess, quartz, feldtspar, mica slate, and primitive limestone; these formations contain iron in some places; and there are iron forges on the banks of the St. Maurice, but no other metal has been met with. Building-stone is of course procured in every situation where this formation of rocks is sufficiently near—along the whole northern bank of the St. Lawrence, with the exception of the alluvial bottoms, and also along the Ottawa. The mountain limestones are in some cases described as marbles; but it does not appear that any of the schistose rocks are adapted for roofing slates, as shingles, or tin and iron plates, are employed in roofing.

In such a formation, coal is not to be expected, and probably there are very few minerals of any value.

The mountains to the south of the St. Lawrence are probably of a similar structure and equally destitute of minerals.

In the alluvial part of the valley, and throughout the greater part of Upper Canada, minerals are not to be expected. The ridge which crosses at the fall of Niagara is chiefly limestone; and there is iron there as well as in the heights to the northward

of Lake Ontario. There are also some forges; but British iron, and iron articles manufactured in Britain are sold, probably cheaper than they can be made in the country.

As there are clays alternating with the sand and gravel in many of the alluvial tracts, there is of course a facility of making bricks in those places where stone is not to be found, and cannot be brought by carriage, except at an expense of more than it is worth. Plaster stone or sulphate of lime, pipeclay, marl, black lead or carbonate of iron, and iron ochres are also to be met with. There are also salt springs, chiefly near the heights from Niagara round Lake Ontario to the Bay of Quinté. A small quantity of salt is made at those springs, the supply of water is obtained by boring through the limestone rock, which operation must sometimes be carried to the depth of 200 or 300 feet. It is reported that two men will bore five feet through that rock in the course of a day.

In the same districts where the salt springs are found by boring into the rocks, petroleum is sometimes met with, floating on the lakes. As it is not known from what particular parts this petroleum issues, it cannot of course be ascertained whether it be produced by undiscovered beds of coal, or in any other way.

Vegetables.

In the present state of Canada, the vegetable tribes have to serve many of the purposes to which minerals are applied in other countries. Houses are built of logs of wood; bridges are constructed of the same; and wood serves to pave the roads. In the way that they are commonly made those wooden roads, which consist of undressed trunks laid in the mud, are neither very seemly nor very safe; but they appear to be the best that the country can, in the meantime afford, and they are better than nothing.

The timber-trees are very numerous, so that only a few of those that are the most serviceable to the settler can be named.

The Sugar Maple (*Acer Saccharinum*), though not one of the most serviceable as a timber tree, is yet a tree of considerable value to the settler, as affording him a ready and cheap substitute for West India sugar. This sugar is obtained by boiling down the sap of the tree; and that sap is taken while in the wood, and before the leaves have begun to expand. The end of March or beginning of April, when the snow has hardly left the sheltered places, is the time when the operation is commenced. The wood of the tree is perforated either by notching it with an axe, or boring into it with an auger, the latter method being least injurious to the tree,

and also most convenient for obtaining the sap. The requisite apparatus are a boiler of about thirty gallons, with a sufficient number of wooden troughs, barrels, and buckets. The troughs cost not more than 17*s.* per hundred; the barrels 4*s.* each; and the buckets 2*s.* 6*d.*; and if the settler is neat-handed he may make them for himself during the snow season: and thus, his only expense for the sugar manufactory is the boiler, which may be had for 2*l.* 10*s.*, and it is an article which is generally useful. The sap is conveyed from the incisions to the troughs by little shoots about nine inches long. As the troughs fill, the sap is carried to the reservoir, where the flaky matter is allowed to settle; but it must not be allowed to remain too long in the reservoirs, otherwise it would ferment and pass into weak vinegar. It is accordingly soon taken to the boiler, and reduced by evaporation to the state of molasses. When properly concentrated it is taken from the boiler and placed in coolers; and when nearly cold, it is strained through a woollen bag into a clarifying boiler, mixed with the whites of eggs, bullock's blood, or some other substance that coagulates with heat. After boiling a sufficient length of time, and being properly clarified, it is either poured into moulds, where it crystallizes into a sort of candy, or left to drain, as moist sugar, in a cask, the bottom of which is drilled full of small holes.

It may afterwards be made into a white or light-coloured sugar by farther clarifying; and in that state it is understood to be about half the value of West India sugar. The principal danger to be guarded against in the manufacture is charring the sugar in the boiler. That is prevented by proper stirring, and a uniform heat not too great; and if those circumstances are not attended to, the sugar remains dark in the colour and disagreeable to the taste. Those imperfections are obviated however by a very little attention.

This sugar is worth about four pence per pound, and a family may easily make seven hundred or even one thousand pounds in the course of the month; and the month is one which cannot be so profitably employed in the fields in any other way. If therefore there are any sugar maples upon an estate when a settler gets possession, it is always desirable to preserve them.

There are various species of maple in Canada; and though they are soft timber and not well adapted for purposes where strength is required, they are highly useful, as well as ornamental, in the manufacture of furniture. Some of them are beautifully bird's-eyed, others clouded and mottled. They work easily, take a fine polish, are by no means liable to warp, hold glue, and receive varnish, re-

markably well; and therefore they rank deservedly high among ornamental timbers.

The Hicories (*Juglans*) which grow in the very best soils, are a very valuable timber. They are straight in the grain, and tough. The nuts of those trees, as is the case with their congener the walnut, contain a considerable quantity of oil.

There are several species of Beech, which are locally known as the white, which is chiefly used for fuel; the red, which is used for palings; and the blue, which is a shrub.

The Elms grow to an immense size, but they are soft and porous timber, and very apt to be decayed at the heart.

There are several kinds of Oak, and though they are inferior to the oak of Europe, yet the white oak is very serviceable for general purposes.

There are many other deciduous trees, some of them of considerable use, and all of them of great beauty in the autumn; for it is a general character of the deciduous trees of America to change into a succession of remarkably bright tints before they drop their leaves at that season.

There are two species of Larch found in the Canadian forests, and though they are allied to the Pine tribe, which are evergreens, yet like the larch of Europe they shed their leaves in winter.

One species, the Red Larch (*Larix Microcarpa*), or the small coned, grows in soils that are moderately good and moderately dry. In favourable circumstances it rises to a great height, and is valuable timber. The other species, the Black Larch (*Pendula*), with drooping branches, grows in swamps, and though it does not attain to the same size it is better timber than the other. The timber of both is rather rough and coarse, but it is excellent for buildings, the posts of fences, and all works of timber that are exposed to the weather.

Of the Canadian Pines the most magnificent is the Weymouth pine (*Pinus Strobus*), sometimes called the white pine. In the western part of the country it sometimes attains the height of two hundred and fifty feet, and has a diameter of six feet, rising like a giant over every other tree in the forest. Those pines grow remarkably straight and clean, and are usually reserved by Government for the navy. In the northern parts of Canada the Hudson's Bay pine is met with; and the variable pine occurs in the other forests. The pines are found on the primitive mountains and soils of an inferior quality.

There are at least three species of Spruces among which the hemlock or Canada spruce, the twigs of which are used in the manufacture of spruce beer,

and the Balm of Gilead spruce, the resin of which forms the Canada balsam, are the most remarkable.

The Yew and the Juniper are both natives of Canada, and so is the American Arbor-vitæ, and the Arbor-vitæ-leaved Cypress, which is called the White Cedar. The last mentioned is a very durable timber.

Wild berries are abundant in Canada, especially Cranberries, which are found in vast quantities in some of the swamps. The Ginseng and some other valuable roots are also met with; and the Canada rice (*Zizania Aquatica*,) which is found in the swamps, supplies a coarse sort of grain.

With the exception of timber-trees, however, the native vegetables are of minor consequence to the settler, as his object is to grub them up and substitute the more valuable cultivated vegetables in their stead. There are, however, many of the native plants that might be serviceable as dye stuffs, and some of the shrubs that may be employed in the dressing of leather.

Animals.

The animals of Canada are very numerous in most of the departments of zoology; but it must suffice to mention a few of the names.

Of ruminating animals the Buffalo is the largest; but it is very rarely met with in any of the inhabited parts of the country, although still abundant in the wilds. The skin of the buffalo is valuable on account of its toughness, and also of the thick matting of hair with which it is covered. The length of a full grown buffalo, from the root of the horns to the tail is fully nine feet.

There are several species of deer, of which one of the most remarkable is the Wapiti, or Canadian deer, with very large horns, and exceeding the common deer in size. Another is the Caribou, or American species of rein-deer.

Black bears are abundant in the forests, and they are described as committing frequent and extensive ravages upon the herds of hogs. Their flesh, their skin, and their fat, are all in estimation. Wolves are abundant and troublesome, and so are Foxes. Lynxes and Wild Cats are the chief members of the feline race to be found.

Weasels of different kinds abound in the forests, under the various names of Ermines, Martens, Minks, and several other appellations. Their skins are all valuable as furs, as are also those of the numerous species of Squirrels that are met with in the country.

Birds are numerous and many of them are valu-

able as food; but thick forests are not the very best places for shooting.

The most abundant, and at the same time the most annoying of all living creatures in Canada, are the flies. Nothing more completely proves the erroneousness of the common belief that frost destroys the eggs and the larvæ of insects, than the incredible swarms of flies and musquitos of various kinds, but most of them equally annoying, that infest the forests, the swamps, the houses, and, in short, every place in Canada, during the summer. The air is almost solid with them, and so tormenting are they, that there is scarcely any comfort in existence, on account of them, unless they are driven off by smoke. It is extremely probable, that much of the unhealthy character of the shallow and stagnant waters, is owing to the putrefaction of the vast number of insects which are beaten into them by the rains. As the forests are their favourite haunts, their numbers must lessen as the country is cleared.

It has been already mentioned that the streams and lakes of Canada abound with fish.

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS, ROUTES, CULTIVATED PRODUCE, &c.

WITH but few exceptions, the towns in Canada are yet in their infancy; and the object of the emigrant should be not to lounge about the towns, but to get to his location, or to a place where he may find employment and wages, as speedily as possible.

QUEBEC is the capital of the lower province, and the general sea-port of all the country to the westward. It is situated on the north-west side of the St. Lawrence, upon Diamond Point, which is formed between that river and the St. Charles, and about 345 feet above the level of the water; so that Quebec, on the very margin of the river, stands more than 100 feet higher than York, the capital of the upper province, which is 556 miles farther in the interior. The fashionable part of the town is on the top of the rock, and the commercial and shipping part on the bank of the river below. The town and suburbs contain altogether about 30,000 inhabitants. From 500 to 600 ships annually visit the

port; and numerous steam-boats and other craft ply upon the St. Lawrence. Ten steam-boats ply between Quebec and Montreal—distance 180 miles. Some of these boats are of 600 tons burden; and the engines of 120 horses power. The freights and fares by these boats are quoted as follows:—

Upwards to Montreal.

Goods per ton . . .	£0	10	0
Steerage passengers . . .	0	10	0
Cabin passengers . . .	1	10	0

Downwards to Quebec.

Goods per ton . . .	£0	7	6
Steerage passengers . . .	0	10	0
Cabin passengers . . .	1	5	0

The average time of the ascent, against the current, by these boats is thirty hours, and that of the descent twenty-four. The charge for the cabin includes provisions, which are good and plentifully supplied; that stated for the steerage (or on the deck) does not include provisions. The charge for steerage passengers in sailing vessels is from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*

The formation of ice in the river puts an end to the navigation in December, and through the winter the communication is carried on by “stage sleighs.”

The vehicle, which is curtained with painted cloth, and furnished with warm wrappers of buffalo hide, contains six persons, with a moderate quantity of luggage. Two horses, yoked tandem, draw it; and they are changed every ten miles. This mode of intercourse continues from the beginning of December to the middle of April, during which period the river is frozen as far as Kingston on the Ontario. There is also ice on all the shallow margins of the lakes, and on the narrow connexions, with the exception of the rapids and falls, but the lakes themselves are never frozen over the depths.

The distances and towns on the direct line of the St. Lawrence from Quebec are as follows:—the towns are printed in *italics*.

	Miles	Miles
QUEBEC to Cap Santé	30	30
Port Neuf	5	35
St. Anne	25	60
<i>Three Rivers</i>	30	90
Rivière du Loup	21	111
Berthier and William Henry	24	135
L'Assomption	24	159
MONTREAL	21	180
La Chine	9	189
Coteau du Lac	34	223
Lancaster	23	246
<i>Cornwall</i>	16	262

	Miles	Miles
. . . . to Osnabruck	13	275
Williamsburg	9	284
Matilda	12	296
<i>Prescott</i>	15	311
Maitland	7	318
<i>Brockville</i>	5	323
Gananoque	32	355
KINGSTON	24	379
Bath	18	397
Napance	12	409
<i>Belleville</i>	29	438
River Trent	12	450
Murray	5	455
Colborne (late Cramahe) .	13	468
Cobourg	16	484
Port Hope	7	491
Darlington	22	513
Whitby	12	525
Pickering	9	534
YORK	22	556
<i>Toronto</i>	14	570
Trafalgar	6	576
<i>Nelson</i>	12	588
Dundas	13	601
Ancaster	3	604
Stony Creek	14	618
Grimsby	10	628

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	Miles.	Miles.
. . . . to St. Catherines	16	644
Niagara	11	655
Queenston	7	662
Chippawa	10	672
<i>Fort Erie</i>	16	688

The distance between any two places intermediate between Quebec and Fort Erie, may easily be found by subtracting the number in the second column opposite to the one nearest Quebec, from the number in the same column opposite to the one nearest Fort Erie. Thus to find the distance from Montreal to York :—

Number opposite to York . . .	556
Ditto Montreal . .	180
Miles from Montreal to York . .	376

MONTREAL is situated on a beautiful island in the St. Lawrence, thirty-two miles long and ten and a-half broad. In point of rank it is the second town in Lower Canada ; but in situation and climate, and convenience of access from all parts of Canada, it is the first. It has been mentioned that, while the river is open, there is a ship navigation to Montreal from the gulf of St. Lawrence ; and a glance at the map will show that Montreal is the centre from which the three great passages into the interior diverge—westward by the St. Lawrence, northward

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by the Ottawa, and southward by the Richelieu to Lake Champlain; the last-mentioned river indeed falls into the St. Lawrence below Montreal; but if an opening were made from that river to La Prairie, where the direct distance is not more than twelve miles, more than sixty miles of navigation would be saved.

The city and suburbs contain about 23,000 inhabitants, and the other parts of the island about 15,000 more. The island, and also the surrounding country are beautiful, and abound in all the productions of the field and the garden.

In the older part of the town, the streets are very narrow; but in the new, toward the high ground, they are more spacious. The best houses are built of indurated limestone. The trade of Montreal, and the resort of people to it, are very considerable; the latter being much increased by the number of emigrants to the various parts of the upper country, who make it a resting place. Very many of those who have come out without proper information and resources, are sometimes found lingering about Montreal in a state of extreme wretchedness,—the charity of the inhabitants having been in a great measure exhausted by incessant exercise.

The ship navigation of the St. Lawrence terminates just above Montreal, as the current gets too rapid, and the water too shallow. Flat-bottomed

boats pointed at both extremities are found to be the best suited for passing the rapids. These boats are about forty feet long and six broad at the middle, and each carries about five tons. They are manned by four hands and a pilot. There is a mast and sail, for taking advantage of the breeze on the still portions of the river, and poles seven feet in length, with iron spikes at the ends to set up the rapids. They have all their provisions and cooking apparatus on board, and usually start five in a party. If the wind is favourable they can sail along Lake St. Louis, which is formed at the junction of the Ottawa, and onward about thirty miles. At that point the difficulties of the upper navigation commence, in passing Isle Des Cascades. The bed of the river is narrowed by the projecting point of Soulange, the extremity of the peninsula between the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa, and it is narrowed and broken by several islands, between which the water rushes with great impetuosity. In consequence, the ascending boats have to land their baggage; and even then, the boatmen are sometimes not able to set them up the rapids with their poles, but must get out and tow them along; and the towing cannot be done to the greatest effect, unless when the men are up to their middle in water. The labour in ascending these rapids, even with an empty boat, is excessive; and it has often to be

continued for several hours without intermission, as one minute's pause would undo the labour of half an hour. The descent is also very hazardous, the boats requiring no urging; but the safe way of descending a rapid is, to keep the boat to the side from which the water sets, as the water is smoothest there, the current slowest, and there is no danger of striking. In a curved rapid, the water sets generally from the one side in the upper part, and from the other side in the under; and the crossing of such rapids is a nice point in river navigation.

The scenery on the right-hand side, in ascending those rapids, is exceedingly picturesque, and the Village of the Cedars, which is well built, and contains about 150 houses, is a favourite place with the people of Montreal during the summer.

The distance from Montreal to Prescott is only about 130 miles; but it is a navigation which occupies at least ten days, and ten days of incessant labour, in which the boatmen are alternately dripping with warm perspiration, and with the cold water of the St. Lawrence, and are compelled to have recourse to frequent libations of unmixed spirits, otherwise their toil would be insurmountable. On the way to Prescott, there are other tide rapids, Coteau du Lac, at the head of Lake St. Francis, near the termination of the British territory on the south side,

and the Sault a little farther up, nearly opposite the village Osnabruck. The latter rapid is nine miles in length, and the ascent of it generally occupies an entire day, while the descent is performed in fifteen minutes, and has been performed in twelve, which is at the astonishing rate of forty-five miles an hour.

When Prescott is reached, the laborious navigation of the St. Lawrence is at an end, and sloops and steam-vessels ply upward as far as the Falls of Niagara. The remaining eighty-six miles of the river, up to Kingston, are highly picturesque, especially in the Lake of the Thousand Islands. Many of these islands are mere specks, but they are so diversified in their forms, that the place altogether presents one of the most singular scenes in nature.

KINGSTON, though not the capital of Upper Canada, is the largest town in the province. It contains about 5,500 inhabitants, has a good harbour, and carries on considerable trade, besides being a depôt of all the trade and passage of Lake Ontario. Regular stages run between Prescott and Montreal, and steam-boats ply between it and the different places on Lake Ontario. The fares for cabin passengers are,—to or from Prescott and Niagara, 2*l.* 10*s.*; Kingston and Niagara, or Kingston and York, 2*l.*; between Kingston and Prescott, 15*s.*; and between York and Niagara, 10*s.*

The navigation of Lake Ontario, from Kingston

to York, the capital of Upper Canada, has all the characters of a sea navigation. York, though a small town, is rising rapidly in population. The harbour is convenient, and the plan of the town well laid out; the situation is low and dirty, but, since the marsh has been drained, less unwholesome. York may be considered as the head-quarters of emigrants, who are to settle in the Home, or Newcastle districts, as Kingston is for those who are to settle in the Midland. The Niagara district is probably the best in this part of Canada; but its inhabitants have, generally speaking, too much of the American character for making it either very profitable or very agreeable for plain Englishmen.

It may be proper here to notice the routes from Montreal along the Ottawa, and to the newly-settled country, in the Ottawa and Eastern districts, between that river and the St. Lawrence.

ROUTE ON THE OTTAWA.

	Miles	Miles
From MONTREAL to St. Eustache	21	21
St. Andrews	24	45
Chatham .	3	48
Grenville .	12	60
Petite Nation	30	90
By Town .	33	123
Hull . .	1	124
Total distance from Quebec to Hull		304

The town of Hull is situated at the head of the steam-boat navigation of the Ottawa, which extends sixty miles down, to the rapids at Grenville; and opposite to Hull is situated By Town, in Upper Canada, extending westward from the mouth of the Rideau River. That river enters the Ottawa by falls, and therefore is unfit for the purposes of navigation; but the Rideau Canal is partly executed to enter a bay about the middle of By Town, from whence there is a ferry across the Ottawa to the steam-boat landing at Hull. Both towns are remarkably well situated; and with the canal in full action to Kingston, it is difficult to imagine a more desirable situation than almost any part of the vicinity. The land is good: there is excellent timber, excellent building stone; and, on the Lower Canada side especially, abundance of water falls for turning any description of machinery. The distance from Montreal is but trifling, not so much as that to Prescott, and the labour of ascending the Ottawa is not half so great as that of ascending the St. Lawrence to Prescott. There are other advantages: the Ottawa lies wholly within the British territory, whereas, on two-thirds of the other route, the American States border; and, at the most difficult part of the navigation, they claim the channel, and could, in the case of a war, interrupt the communication. The climate also is favourable. The situation is about

ninety miles farther south than that of Quebec; and the low country is protected from the north-east winds, by the heights and the thick forests in the back country. In those forests the trees, so far as they have been examined, grow to a much larger size than in the country behind Quebec, and that is a certain indication of both a better soil and a better climate. To the south-west of the Ottawa, the country is in some places swampy; but as there are rapids on all the rivers, there is every where sufficient elevation for drainage; and the lands which are originally humid, as they collect the rich mould when they are in that state, are always the most fertile when drained. Whether, therefore, its easy access, (for, with the exception of a few miles, it is sailing all the way from any part of the British islands to Hull and By Town), its fertility, its connexion with the different parts of Canada, or the circumstance of its population being all British, be taken into consideration, it is difficult to imagine a place better adapted for the comfortable residence and successful employment of emigrants, than the country on the Ottawa, whether on the side of Upper or of Lower Canada.

Let us now examine the route from York to Amherstburg, the most south-westerly town in Upper Canada, situated on the Detroit River between Lake St. Clair and the head of Lake Erie. This

line of communication may be made over land, though, by proceeding to the entrance of the Welland Canal, a little to the westward of that of the Niagara River, that canal may be ascended to the mouth of the Ouse in Lake Erie, and thence the navigation is uninterrupted all the way.

The land road is along Dundas Street, which has been opened all the way, and is tolerably made in some places. The land over which it lies, is said to be good all the way, and the climate mild for a Canadian one, and becoming more so, as the forests are cleared away. The distances from York are as follow :-

DUNDAS STREET TO AMHERSTBURG.

	Miles	Miles
YORK to Humber	9	9
Trafalgar	14	23
Mill Creek	7	30
Dundas	12	42
Ancaster	3	45
Grand River	18	63
Burford	10	73
Oxford	30	103
Delaware	29	132
Chatham	40	172
Sandwich	60	232
Amherstburg	18	250

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Miles	Miles
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8	63
10	73
30	103
29	132
10	172
60	232
18	250

As far as Dundas, that route lies along, or near, the shore of Lake Ontario; Dundas being seated on the Bay of Burlington, at the western extremity of that lake. Cross lines of road are marked out, and in the progress of making,—one southward to Port Talbot on Lake Erie, and another northward from London (between Oxford and Delaware) to Goderich, on the shore of Lake Huron, in the million of contiguous acres, belonging to the Canada Company and stretching sixty miles along the shore of the lake. The central road comes down upon Lake St. Clair at Sandwich, and winds round the margin of that lake and the bank of the Detroit River, to Amherstburg.

The Canada Company are, according to report, obviating on their land, in this part of the province, one of the evils complained of in the preface: they are making roads, which is decidedly beginning the improvement where it ought to be begun; but where, in most cases of colonization, it has rather unwisely ended—and sometimes it has ended before it had reached that stage.

As the land route extends along the northern shore of Lake Ontario, all the way from Kingston, it may not be amiss to cast just a glance at the villages, or rudiments of towns, along the whole line.

Kingston has been already mentioned in the no-

tice of the navigation. The houses are built chiefly of stone, substantially rather than tastefully; and the land in the immediate neighbourhood is very stony and not very fertile. That round the Bay of Quinté to the westward, is better; but it is much overrun with the Canada thistle, a scourging weed, which is very difficult to extirpate.

To the westward of Kingston, the villages are numerous and thriving; but the place, with the exception of the interior, and that is, in some places, settled by Irish paupers, is better adapted for finding employment than for finding land. Gannanogue, Brockville, Belleville, Port Hope, Cobourg, and several other places, are all in a very active state. There are many flour mills, and saw mills for timber, on the streams, and the whole country is in a state of rapid improvement.

Beyond York, Dundas is well situated; has tolerable roads, the one from Niagara, as well as that from York; and it enjoys the navigation of Burlington Bay. Ancaster, at the head of the Bay, is in a very beautiful situation; the people are mostly Scotch, and their number amounts to more than five hundred.

Brandtford, the next village, is also delightfully situated. It is in the possession of John Brandt, the son of the Indian chief, of whom that mention is

made in "Gertrude of Wyoming," which induced Mr. Brandt, when in London some years ago, to cause the author of the poem to mend his verse. A friend of the author of these pages spent some time with Mr. Brandt in 1819, and was astonished at finding the son of the "Mohawk monster" one of the most accomplished and amiable men in Canada. It seems that, in spite of the poetry, the father was as amiable. Brandt has been returned to the House of Representatives in Upper Canada, and is the first native Indian that has been so.

After leaving the shore of Lake Ontario, the villages in the central part of the country are very small. London, for instance, consists but of two or three houses. The central heights, or elevations, after the limestone ridge is passed, are different from those in most parts of Canada. They are open plains, destitute of timber, and badly watered. Some bits of substance, supposed to be ancient pottery, have been found on them; and that has led to the supposition that they may have been cleared and inhabited by some race of men that is now extinct. That is of course wholly hypothesis. The gravelly and sterile nature of the soil, and the want of water, are quite sufficient to account for the absence of trees, without the necessity of creating a people for so very unprofitable a labour, and destroying them

all after they had accomplished it. Whether, when the better land has been denuded of its timber, it will impart a portion of its fertility to those sterile heights, or "plains," as they are called, or whether their sterility will invade it, are questions that cannot in the meantime be solved. Report says that the clearing of the woods in Upper Canada makes the winter milder, or at any rate diminishes the quantity of snow, and augments the heat and drought of the summer. In other places it is found to increase the cold of the one season and the heat of the other; and both causes tend equally to injure vegetation. It may be that pasturage by sheep, a species of animal much wanted in Canada, and but ill adapted for the lower and more fertile places, might be the best means of improving those plains. There must be some hazard in too rapid a destruction of the forests; for though there is no occasion to dread the failure of rain altogether, in the vicinity of such vast expanses of water as the lakes, yet the western country, beyond the Queenston heights is very flat; and there are more of those dry and barren plains between the Ouse and the Thames than in all the rest of Canada.

The town of Guelph, is one of the new ones founded by the Canada Company. It is on a crown reserve of about 40,000 acres, sold to them, and

lying in the Gore district, about twenty-five miles to the north of Dundas Street. Though it has been founded only four years, it contains more than 400 inhabitants, which proves how judicious that regulation of the Company's is, by which they make roads in their settlements. Guelph is within thirty miles of Lake Ontario; little more than fifty from York; about seventy from Lake Huron; and within fifteen of the Company's large Huron tract of land. The township is well watered, being on one of the branches of the Ouse, one of which forms a bend round one side of the town.

Goderich, on the shores of Lake Huron, is very judiciously situated. Though close by the lake, it is on a rising ground, and therefore dry. The mouth of the river Maitland, in a bend of which the site of the town lies, forms a harbour; the lake gives it all the advantages of a coasting port, and besides abounds with fish, especially sturgeon; the climate is good, and the soil capable of producing all the crops of the warmer parts of Europe, except those that have to stand in leaf during the winter. The roads that are opening eastward through Guelph to Lake Ontario, and southward in the direction of Port Talbot on Lake Erie, will be of great advantage to all the intermediate country.

Though this alluvial part of Canada labours under

some disadvantages, yet in the ease with which roads (of some quality or other) can be formed it has the advantage of the rocky districts. Guelph, however, is not on the alluvial land, but on the limestone ridge. The limestone squares well for building, and burns into good lime, either for mortar or for manure. Goderich has not the advantage of stone at hand, but brick earth of good quality abounds. One of the chief disadvantages of this alluvial part of Canada, is the want of pine and cedar timber. The sugar maple is the prevailing tree; and though it has its uses, it is far from being the best for architectural purposes; and, unless some means be found of fetching timber by Lake Huron, good timber will be very costly, as soon as the country becomes thickly peopled. It is probable, however, that the deciduous cypress (*Taxodium disticha*) might be introduced with great advantage in the moist and swampy places.

Amherstburg, as it is the most south-westerly, so it is the largest town on the western peninsula. It is pleasantly situated on the east side of the Detroit River, about three miles above Lake Erie. The population is about 1200; and for a new place, it is wealthy, and what may, in the wilderness, be called fashionable. There is a good deal of trade with the Americans on the opposite side of the river; and warm as the summer is, and short as is

the winter compared with that in Lower Canada, the river is then completely frozen over, and forms a bridge of communication.

Sandwich, though smaller than Amherstburg, is still a considerable place, containing 800 or 900 people, and like the other well situated for trade.

CULTIVATED PRODUCTIONS.

The extent of Canada is so great, and the heat of the summer so intense, that it would be much more easy to enumerate the useful vegetables which cannot be cultivated to advantage on it, than to enumerate those which can.

In order that we may judge with the greater accuracy of the relative productiveness of the soil, in the staple articles of agricultural produce that are also grown in England, it may not be amiss to begin by stating the estimated average produce per acre at home. That is given as follows:—

	Bushels
Wheat per acre	20
Barley	32
Oats	36
Rye	24
Peas	20
Beans	28
Potatoes	250

Report says that wheat in the London district (at Guelph), where it is all winter wheat, yields from twenty to forty bushels an acre. But until there are more domestic animals in the country, the smaller return is probably too high, excepting in the virgin year of the soil.

Pickering ("Emigration, or no Emigration") estimates the produce in the same part of Upper Canada, at eighteen bushels an acre for wheat, and twenty-five for Indian corn or maize; which, in the article of wheat, is about the same as the worst counties, though not the worst land in England. An allowance must however be made for the want of domestic animals and manure, and also of proper experimental knowledge of the climate. It must also be borne in mind that the Canadian farmer pays not more for the freehold of his land, than the English farmer pays in one year for parish rates.

The return of wheat per acre in the neighbourhood of York is estimated at twenty-five bushels. That must be on the very best land; and the best land there, is stronger than that about Guelph or Goderich, where the estimate of eighteen bushels was taken, so that both are probably correct. The twenty-five bushels are supposed to be a first crop, obtained from land that has been just cleared of

timber, and not ploughed but simply harrowed. The seed one bushel to the acre, which is twenty-five returns. It is estimated that the third year's crop would be from thirty to forty bushels an acre ; but the dates are not given, and the fact is rather doubtful, more especially if a large space is cleared, so that the drought and weather can act fully upon it.

Winter wheat is sown from the first of August to about the middle of September ; and it is harvested in the end of July or beginning of August varying with the situation. Spring wheat is put into the ground about the last week of April, and reaped about the end of August, or the first week of September, according to the climate. On good land the average of winter wheat may be about equal to that of England, or twenty bushels an acre ; spring wheat cannot be estimated higher than eighteen or perhaps than fifteen. It is easy to see that, unless in very favoured spots, spring wheat must be a more precarious crop. The spring frosts, alternating with the rains, just after the snow is melted and the ground is very soft, throw it out ; and the frosty nights of autumn are apt to whiten it before it is ripe. The Canadian wheat, especially the spring wheat, though of good quality when properly ripened, is very small in the grain. That may be

one reason why the Canadian farmers rarely sow more than a bushel and a-half, and sometimes not more than a bushel, on the acre. It is probable however that that is an injudicious parsimony, as on the very best prepared land in England, and with the earliest sowing, it is never profitable to put in less than two bushels an acre; and the prudent average is two and a-half, or two and three-quarters. Two bushels would therefore certainly not be too much in Canada, especially as the value of the seed bears a much less proportion to the expense of labour than in England, and manure is not obtainable for such a breadth of land.

Rye answers well upon the light dry lands in Upper Canada, though the produce per acre is less than in England, being twenty bushels in place of twenty-four. It is chiefly used in distillation.

Barley is not so well adapted to the Canadian climate as wheat or rye. It is little sown in the upper province, except in the comparatively humid district to the northward of Lake Ontario. The produce is not two-thirds of the average of England, being only twenty bushels an acre, while that in England is thirty-two, and in Lincolnshire as much as forty-eight, or double the Canadian estimate.

Oats never yield a good crop in very warm coun-

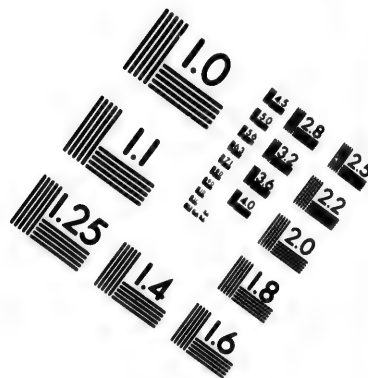
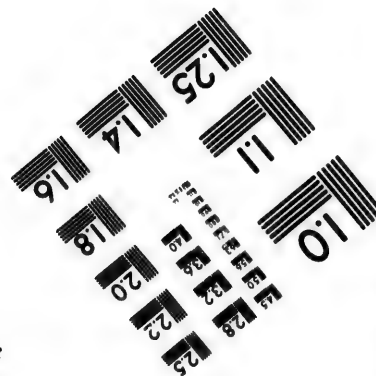
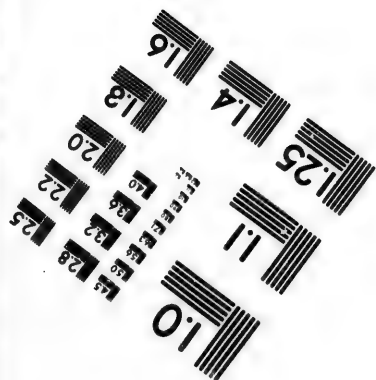
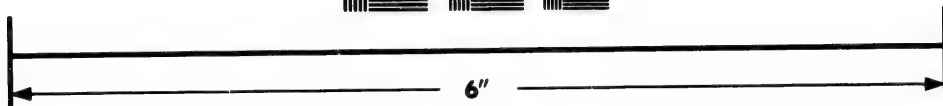
tries ; and perhaps ought not to be cultivated in Canada at all, as there is no account of a single good field of that species of grain in the whole extent of the country.

Millet when sown answers very well, and so no doubt would the other small grain which is cultivated in the upper districts of India. The report is that three quarts of millet seed sow an acre, and that the produce of the acre is eighty bushels.

Indian corn or maize is cultivated in Canada, but the returns bear no proportion whatever to those that are obtained in Mexico and the other central parts of America. The produce in the western districts is not more than twenty-five bushels an acre, and that in the eastern districts not more than sixteen. It is also a crop that requires a considerable deal of care. That care is sometimes, however, more than repaid by a crop of pumpkins, which is raised between the drills of the maize. Twelve hundred pumpkins of a large size may be raised on a single acre.

The soil of Canada in those places where there is perhaps sufficient warmth of climate, is not adapted for the growth of rice, and accordingly that grain has not been introduced. The Canadian rice (*Zizania aquatica*), formerly mentioned, though found abundantly in the wild state in some places,



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more especially on the shores and shallows of the Rice Lakes in the Newcastle district, a little to the northward of Lake Ontario, has not been brought into culture. It is however sometimes purchased of the Indians. It is a very coarse grain ; but there is little doubt that it might be cultivated with considerable advantage in the swamps.

The Canadian summers are too warm for beans, which either keep running up to stem without flowering, or are infested with aphides ; but the smaller legumes thrive well ; and there is no doubt that much advantage, especially in the foddering of cattle during those months when there is nothing in the fields, and also in the sty-feeding of hogs, might be derived from the general introduction of the various kinds of tares, vetches, and lentils.

The potato, the most valuable of all esculent roots, does not succeed very well in Canada. The climate appears to be both too warm and too dry ; and that is in part proved by its thriving better in Nova Scotia, which is much colder and more humid than any part of Canada. The same thing holds in the British Islands. Potatoes are much more productive, and of far better quality in Ireland, and in Lancashire, and the other rainy countries in the west, than they are in the best wheat districts of England. It is probable also that the Canadian

soil is not well adapted to their growth, some parts being too retentive, and others too porous.

The soil of Upper Canada should be well adapted for turnips; but as the turnip is a northern vegetable, the summer is much too warm for its perfection; and it could scarcely bear the rigour of the winter.

Canada is not naturally a good grass country. In the shade of pines scarcely any grasses will grow; and the deciduous forests are from their thickness not a great deal better. The open plains also are too warm and dry for grasses; and the plants in the marshes are coarse. Perhaps the best of the true grasses is the common Timothy grass (*Phleum pratense*). The length of its roots enables it to bear the heat better than many of the others, but it is a coarse grass. White clover grows spontaneously, though hardly so close as to form a pasturage; but the most profitable grasses for the Canadian farmers are red clover, lucerne, and sainfoin, of which, upon lands duly prepared, the crops are abundant. Imported seed is costly however; and thus, hitherto, most of the patches that have been sown, have been allowed to stand till they were useless as hay, for the sake of the seed. No correct estimate can however yet be formed of what Canada may become as a grazing

country. Some of the best natural meadows in England are in the county of Northampton, and though that is comparatively a moist county, they take a hundred years before they come to maturity. If good grazings are to be found in Canada they will take longer.

All the useful species of the gourd tribe (*Cucurbitaceæ*) thrive uncommonly well in Canada. Melons of excellent flavour, and weighing sometimes as much as fifty pounds each, are reared without any trouble. Water melons also grow on the dry places; and cucumbers, and all kinds of gourds, vegetable marrows, and similar fruits, are reared with the same ease.

Parsnips, carrots, and similar esculent roots, grow to a large size, but they are rather insipid; and it is difficult to rear any of the cabbage tribe, they are so infested with insects, and the heat is also too great for them.

Capsicums, and several other pungent vegetables, thrive well in the gardens of the upper provinces:—The asparagin plants are not much cultivated.

Fruits are abundant, and of excellent quality. In Lower Canada, near Quebec, apples are the principal fruit. They sell for about one farthing a pound: they are pared, sliced, strung upon threads, and dried in the sun, or over the fire, and then barrelled up for winter use. Pears are rarely met with.

Plums are abundant along the St. Lawrence, from a little above Quebec, but they are less frequent in the upper province. A sort of wild plums are mentioned, as occurring in the forests, but they are not good. Cherries are very abundant, both cultivated and indigenous. The wild sorts grow on very large trees, often three feet in diameter, and more than a hundred feet high, so that there is no way of getting at the cherries but by felling the tree. Thus they are abandoned to the wild pigeons, of which vast numbers resort to them in the season.

To the westward of York, the peach is one of the most abundant fruits in Canada, though in the districts farther to the east peaches are reared with difficulty, as the spring frosts destroy the young trees. In the districts first mentioned they are in vast profusion and sell as low as 1s. 6d. per bushel. They are dried and preserved for the winter after much the same fashion as the apples.

The wild grape, which twines among the trees in the Canadian forests, is small and not edible; but in the peach districts alluded to, cultivated grapes grow easily, and to great perfection.

Gooseberries, currants, strawberries, cranberries, and various other sorts are found wild in the bushes and swamps. The currants, strawberries, and cranberries are excellent of their kinds; the gooseberries are rather tart.

It is worthy of remark, that on a little red sandstone district, at St. Paul's Bay, about forty miles below Quebec, fruit trees grow better than in the country higher up, and even peaches ripen.

Tobacco is cultivated in the west, and there is no doubt that the culture might be increased with great advantage. Hemp also might be grown very profitably on the swamps. The following is an estimate of the probable advantage of cultivating that plant :

“ Expense of cultivating one acre of Hemp yielding about two tons raw, or half a ton prepared.

	Halifax currency
Ploughing in the autumn . . .	£0 10 0
Cross ploughing in the spring . . .	0 7 6
Harrowing	0 1 0
Sowing broadcast	0 11 3
Bush harrowing	0 0 6
Pulling and housing male stalks . . .	0 18 10
Ditto female ditto	1 6 3
Taking seed from the plants . . .	0 9 2
Total expenses . . .	4 4 6
The seed remains with the farmer say } eight minots at 10s. }	4 0 0
	0 4 6

Thus it will be seen that the seed would of itself be almost sufficient to refund the outlay and labour.

Allowing the farmer, therefore, 15*l.* currency for every *four tons of raw*, or *one ton of prepared hemp*, the Company would be paying the grower very liberally for his produce, offering thereby a powerful encouragement to the agriculturist, and ensuring abundant supplies for the British market.

The cost of one ton of merchantable hemp to the Company, when landed in England, would be as follows:—

	H. currency	Sterling
To the grower for four tons of raw hemp=one ton prepared	£15	0 0
Freightage, insurance, stow- age, &c.	5	0 0
Internal transport	0	10 0
Ratio of expense on establish- ment	0	2 0
Interest on outlay	1	0 9
Tare and wear	1	0 9
Proportionate expense on seed	0	6 0
	22	19 6=20 13 8
	Per ton	
Riga Rhine, sells	44	0 0
Petersburg, clean	43	0 0
Outshot	40	0 0
Half clean	36	0 0
	4)163	0 0
Mean price of hemp	40	15 0

	£20 13 8
Per ton in England	40 15 0
Profit, accruing to the Compa- ny on one ton of prepared hemp	20 1 6

Now assuming the number of heads of families in the province who subsist upon the produce of their lands to be 90,000;—of this number, suppose one half only are disposed to cultivate hemp, 45,000;—and granting that they devote two acres of their farms to the growth of hemp, and that each acre produces only half a ton of prepared hemp, then we have 45,000 tons;—45,000 tons of hemp at 40*l.* 15*s.* is 1,833,750*l.*;—which sum is the probable extent of the Lower Canada hemp trade, after it shall have been carried on for two or three years.”

This estimate, which is in all probability a little too sanguine, is extracted from a paper drawn up by Mr. Joseph Bouchette, Surveyor General of Canada, and author of a large work on that country. We shall close this section by a statement of the expense and returns of Canadian farming from a sensible little work by Mr. Joseph Pickering.

Costs and Returns of a Farm in Canada.

"A farm of 200 acres; seventy cleared; with a good log, or small farm house, or barn, and a young orchard, &c.; 200 acres, say at four dollars, or 18s. per acre, 800 dollars, or 180*l.*; 100 dollars, or 22*l.* 10s. yearly, and interest until paid, of the remainder. A person with 200*l.* may settle very comfortably on such a farm, and cover all necessary outgoings; and the following items would be required:—

Dollars

As stock, &c., two yoke of oxen; one well-broken yoke, forty-five dollars; one yoke of steers, unbroken, thirty-five dollars . 80

Three ox chains, twelve dollars; two yokes, three dollars; sled, five dollars . . . 20

A horse (or brood mare) to ride, go to mill, &c., plough between potatoes, corn, &c. . 50

Light Jersey waggon, second hand, (a new one would cost sixty-five dollars), with spring seat, both for pleasure and profit, fifty dollars; harness, ten dollars; and saddle, fifteen dollars 75

Two ploughs, eighteen dollars; harrow, six dollars; two axes, five dollars; hoes, &c., three dollars 32

Carried forward . 257

	Dollars
Brought forward	257
Six cows at fifteen dollars each ; six calves, and heifers at five dollars	120
Two sows, six dollars ; thirty store pigs at one dollar each	36
Twenty sheep at one dollar and a quarter each	25
Geese, fowls, &c.	5
Household furniture,—three beds and bed- ding, fifty dollars ; tables, ten dollars ; crockery, ten dollars ; pots and kettles, ten dollars ; clock, fifteen dollars ; common chairs, a quarter of a dollar each ; painted Windsor, one to two dollars each—say ten dollars	117
The first deposit towards payment of farm	100
	£148 : 10 : 0 = 660

One Year's Outgoings and Expenses.

Girdling ten acres of woods, clearing out the underbrush and fern, five dollars per acre	50
Seed wheat for the same (one bushel and a quarter per acre) at three-quarters of a dollar per bushel	9
Sowing and harrowing ditto	5
Ten acres of wheat sown after peas, plough- ing, two dollars per acre	20
	Carried forward 84

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	Dollars
Brought forward .	84
Seed as above, nine dollars; sowing and harrowing, five dollars	14
Cradling and binding the twenty acres, at one dollar and a-half per acre	30
Carting and stacking	23
Thrashing 360 bushels, at one-tenth of a dollar	27
Suppose ten acres of clover, sown the year before with oats, at 7lbs. per acre (often only 3 or 4lbs. sown)	8
Mowing first crop of early clover, for hay, three-quarters of a dollar per acre; getting together, one dollar (it wanting no making); and hauling together, one dollar and three-quarters	35
Mowing the second crop for seed, &c.	35
Thrashing the seed, two bushels produce per acre, at one dollar per bushel	20
Ten acres ploughed for peas, two dollars per acre (often done for one dollar and a half); seed for ditto, three bushels, (generally only two), at one dollar and a-half per bushel	35
Sowing and harrowing, five dollars; thrashing fifty bushels, three dollars	8
[The remainder, 150 bushels, give to hogs in	
Carried forward .	319

	Dollars
Brought forward .	319
the straw unthrashed, if the straw be not good for sheep and cattle (<i>i. e.</i> not got well); but if good, I would recommend it being given to the sheep, lightly thrashed, as the very best food to be had here for them, and which they are very fond of.]	
Four acres of oats for calves, sheep, milch cows, and horse, the seed three bushels per acre, at a quarter of a dollar per bushel, three dollars; ploughing, &c., ten dollars . . .	13
Six acres of corn, ploughing twice, eighteen dollars; planting and harrowing, four dollars; two hoeings, nine dollars; ploughing between the rows, two dollars; husking, &c., twelve dollars; hauling, thrashing, and seed, ten dollars . . .	65
Eight acres in Timothy, or other grass, for hay; mowing and stacking as for clover . . .	24
Twelve acres in sheep pasture, two acres for potatoes, cabbages, turnips, and other vegetables, for house (chiefly), sheep, calves, &c., hiring a stout boy at five dollars per month, and board for year, to attend cattle, milk, &c. . .	100
To the above expenses may be added one year's interest of the purchase-money, yet unpaid, being 6 per cent. on 700 dollars . . .	42
Total	563

Produce of the Seventy Acres.

Twenty acres of wheat at eighteen bushels per acre (sometimes thirty,) at three-quarters of a dollar per bushel 270

Ten acres of clover seed, at two bushels per acre, and seven dollars per bushel 140

Six acres of Indian corn, at twenty-five bushels per acre,—150 bushels at half a dollar 75

Thirty store pigs (for fattening next season) 30

Thirty fat hogs, weighing at least 200lbs. each (or one barrel), thirty barrels at twelve dollars per barrel 360

Six cows, butter and cheese for summer . 60

A yoke of fat oxen, sixty dollars (besides a cow or two killed for the house) . . . 60

Twenty lambs twenty dollars, and twenty fleeces of wool twenty dollars 40

Geese, feathers, eggs, fowls, &c. . . . 10

One year's farm produce 1045

Ditto expenses . 563

Surplus 482

“ With the beef and vegetables allowed, above 282 dollars will keep a family of four or five persons well during the year, leaving a clear profit of 200 dollars, or 45*l*. beside the improvement of the

farm ; and if hemp or tobacco were made part of the productions, the profits probably would be larger.

“ Five bushels of Indian corn or peas will fatten a fresh store hog, or keep one through the winter ; they get their living in the woods and pastures during the summer, also during the winter when nuts are plentiful, which generally happens three years out of five.”

The name and particular locality of the farm thus estimated are not mentioned, but from the context it may be concluded that the farm is in the London district of Upper Canada ; the expense of which is probably a little less, and the returns a little more than in some other parts of the country, though the difference in either respect is probably not so much as to make it differ greatly from the average.

NOTE.—*On the Governments of the two Provinces.*

The government of each of the provinces of Canada consists of a Governor, a Deputy Governor, an Executive Council, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. The Governor and his Deputy represent the King, and act under his commission ; the Executive is a kind of Privy Council ; the Le-

gislative Council are a sort of Peers appointed by mandamus from the King, and, like that of the Peers of the United Kingdom, their number is indefinite; and the House of Assembly are the Representatives of the People. These three branches or estates are analogous to the King, Lords, and Commons of the United Kingdom.

The Assembly of Lower Canada consists of eighty-four members. Forty shillings freehold is the qualification in the country for voters, and a house and land of 5*l.* in the cities of Quebec and Montreal, and the boroughs of William Henry and Three Rivers.

In Upper Canada there are forty Members of Assembly. They must be British subjects by birth or naturalization, and not Members of the Legislative Council, or Clergymen.

The Governor has, in each province, the power of calling, proroguing, and dissolving the Assembly.

The criminal law, and municipal usage, resemble those of England. Civil cases are decided by Courts of King's Bench, with an appeal to the Governor and Council, and finally to the King in Council at home. The law in all matters relating to the seigniorial lands in Lower Canada, is the old French law.

There is no tax in Upper Canada, or in the

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"townships" of Lower, but a property-tax, which amounts to about one penny in the pound. In the seigniories there is no tax to the Government, but the holders of lands under the seigniorie are subject to feudal imposts and restrictions which Englishmen do not much relish.

There are no tithes or other exactions from the people for the support of any Protestant church establishment. There are reserved lands for this church; but as these are not in general productive, the officiating clergy are paid out of various funds.

There is the most perfect religious liberty, all persuasions being equally free and equally protected, so long as they conform to the civil laws of the colony. Accordingly there are preachers of all denominations scattered up and down the country. In fact, there is less to trammel industry than in almost any other country.

CHAPTER VII.

MEANS AND MODE OF EMIGRATING.

IN a former chapter, an attempt was made to point out the classes of persons to whom emigration has every chance of being advantageous, if it be conducted in the proper manner; and in the intermediate chapters, a similar attempt has been made to show that the British colonies in North America, the Canadas especially, and of the Canadas the districts on the Ottawa, and Upper Canada, are the places to which, in preference to any others, an emigrant from the British islands ought to turn his attention. As many particulars respecting Canada have also been noticed, as may, if carefully studied, give the emigrant all the knowledge of that country, which is absolutely necessary previous to his arrival in it. It therefore now remains to point out the mode in which the emigrant may most conveniently get there, and be most at home and ready

to begin his operations when he arrives. The objects are, that the voyage should be made in the way that shall combine, in the greatest proportion, the three requisites of cheapness, expedition, and comfort; that the emigrant shall know where he has to go, and how he is to go, the moment that he lands, in order that he may not waste his time and his resources in a place where he is a stranger, and where, from the number of misdirected, or irresolute emigrants that are constantly hovering listlessly about, the people cannot be supposed to pay much attention to him or his concerns; and that he should have with him, or know with certainty where he can obtain, every information, and every resource that is necessary, not only for his mere settlement, but for his subsistence, and the carrying on of his operations, until the fruits of his labour in the new country have become a certain means of support to himself, and to all whom he may have taken out with him.

These are the plain principles which common sense dictates; but it is not easy so to modify them for practice as that they will suit the case of each individual. So that, after all the instructions that can be given, the emigrant must be counsellor and judge for himself. He must have the information given him, but the decision, and the putting of that

decision in execution must be his own. Having made up his mind he must abide resolutely by it, in spite of every adverse circumstance that may arise. He must be firm as a rock; for an irresolute emigrant is certain never to succeed. He must be careful too, not to ask the advice of all persons promiscuously, but to find out those who are as much interested in giving him right information, as he is in receiving it.

The following extract from Mr. A. C. Buchanan's "Emigration practically Considered," contains many useful hints.

"The following practical hints," says Mr. Buchanan, "may prove useful to emigrants proceeding to North America.

"Persons intending to emigrate to North America, who have no friends there before them, should consider well the place to which they ought to proceed.

"The rate of passage, exclusive of provisions, to the United States, is from 5*l.* to 6*l.* per adult, and from any of our colonies from 2*l.* to 3*l.*; a child under seven years old pays one-third, and over seven and under fourteen one-half. A voyage to New York from the United Kingdom in the months of April, May, June, and October, (in which the shortest passages are generally made), is performed

in from thirty to thirty-five days. To Quebec, in the month of April or May, from thirty to forty-five days. Halifax and St. John's, New Brunswick, from twenty-five to thirty-five days.

“ Persons proceeding to any part of the State of Pennsylvania, and not immediately to Lake Erie, should embark for Philadelphia; if to the back part of Virginia, or any part of Maryland, or Kentucky, take shipping for Baltimore; if for Jersey, or the State of New York, embark for New York, from whence, in fact, you will find facilities to every part of the continent. If you are destined to any part of the Canadas (unless the district of Gaspé) take shipping for Quebec. If for the district of Gaspé or Chaleurs, go direct, if you can meet with a conveyance; if not, Miramichi, or Prince Edward's Island, will be the most convenient ports to embark for. Steam-boats ply daily from Quebec to and from Montreal, which will be found the best route to any part of Upper Canada, and the western States bordering on the Lakes or River St. Lawrence. If you have friends before you, and you are going to New Brunswick, take shipping for St. John's, St. Andrew's, or Miramichi, as your advices may direct.

“ If you have no fixed place in view, or friends before you, if labour and farming be your ob-

ject, and you have a family, bend your course to the Canadas; for there you will find the widest field for your exertions, and the greatest demand for labour.

“ In almost every part of the middle States of America, you are subject to fever and ague, as also in some parts of Upper Canada. Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, are exempt in this respect.

“ I would particularly recommend the months of April and May for going out, as you may then expect a favourable passage; on no account go in July or August, as, from the prevalence of southwest winds, you will have a tedious passage. Make your bargain for your passage with the owner of the ship, or some well-known respectable broker, or ship master; avoid, by all means, those crimps that are generally found about the docks and quays, near where ships are taking in passengers. Be sure that the ship is going to the port you contract for, as much deception has been practised in this respect. It is important to select a well-known captain and a fast-sailing ship, even at a higher rate.

“ When you arrive at the port you sail for, proceed immediately in the prosecution of your objects, and do not loiter about, or suffer yourself to be advised by designing people, who too often give

their opinion unsolicited. If you want advice, and there is no official person at the port you may land at, go to some respectable person, or chief magistrate, and be guided by his advice.

“ Let your baggage be put up in as small a compass as possible ; get a strong deal chest of convenient size ; let it be the shape of a sailor's box, broader at bottom than top, so that it will be more steady on board ship ; good strong linen or sacking bags will be found very useful. Pack your oatmeal, or flour, in a strong barrel or flax-seed cask, (which you can purchase cheap in the spring of the year). I would advise, in addition to the usual wood hoops, two iron ones on each cask, with strong lid and good hinge, a padlock, &c. Baskets or sacks are better adapted for potatoes than casks.

“ The following supply will be sufficient for a family of five persons for a voyage to North America, viz.—48 stone of potatoes, (if in season, say not after the first of June) ; $2\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. of oatmeal or flour ; $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. of biscuits ; 20 lbs. of butter in a keg ; 1 gallon of molasses ; 20 lbs. of bacon ; 50 lbs. of fish (herrings) in a small keg ; 1 gallon of spirits ; and a little vinegar.—When you contract with the captain for your passage, do not forget to insure a sufficient supply of good water. An adult will

require five pints per day—children in proportion.

“ The foregoing will be found a sufficient supply for an emigrant’s family of five persons, for sixty or seventy days, and will cost about 5*l.* in Ireland or Scotland; in England 6*l.* or 7*l.* If the emigrant has the means, let him purchase besides, 1 lb. of tea and 14 lbs. of sugar for his wife.

“ The preceding statement contains the principal articles of food required, which may be varied as the taste and circumstances of the emigrant may best suit. In parting with your household furniture, &c. reserve a pot, a tea-kettle, frying-pan, feather-bed (the Irish peasantry generally possess a feather-bed), as much coarse linen as you can, and strong woollen stockings; all these will be found very useful on board ship, and at your settlement, and are not difficult to carry. Take your spade and reaping-hook with you, and as many mechanical tools as you can, such as augers, planes, hammers, chisels, &c.; thread, pins, needles, and a strong pair of shoes for winter. In summer, in Canada, very little clothing is required for six months, only a coarse shirt and linen trowsers; and you will get cheap mocassins (Indian shoes); you will also get cheap straw hats in the Canadas which are better for summer than wool hats, and in

winter you will require a fur or Scotch woollen cap. Take a little purgative medicine with you, and if you have young children, suitable medicine for them. Keep yourselves clean on board ship, eat such food as you have been generally accustomed to (but in moderation), keep no dirty clothes about your berths, nor filth of any kind. Keep on deck, and air your bedding daily when the weather will permit; take a mug of salt water occasionally, in the morning. By attending to these observations I will ensure your landing in good health, and better-looking than when you embarked.

“ From the great disparity of male over female population in the Canadas, I would have every young farmer or labourer going out (who can pay for the passage of two), to take an active young wife with him.

“ In Lower Canada and New Brunswick winter begins about the end of November, and the snow is seldom clear from the ground till the beginning of April. In Nova Scotia and Prince Edward's Island, from their insulated situation, the winters are milder than in New Brunswick or Lower Canada; and in Upper Canada they are pretty similar to the back part of the State of New York.

“ The risk of a bad harvest or hay-time is rarely felt in Canada, and consequently farming is not

attended with so much anxiety or labour as in the United Kingdom. The winters are cold, but dry and bracing. I have seen men in the woods, in winter, felling trees, with their coats off, and otherwise lightly clothed. The summers are extremely hot, particularly in July and August.

“ The new settler must consult the seasons in all his undertakings, and leave nothing to chance or to be done another day. The farmers of Lower Canada are worthy of remark in those respects.

“ In conclusion, I beseech you, if you have any party-feeling at home, if you wish to promote your own prosperity, and that of your family,—wash your hands clean of it, ere you embark. Such characters are looked upon with suspicion in the colonies; and you could not possibly take with you a worse recommendation.

“ Prices of living, house rent, labour, &c. in the principal towns of Canada, with the expense of travelling on the great leading routes.—In Quebec and Montreal, excellent board and lodging in the principal hotels and boarding houses, 20s. to 30s. per week. Second rate ditto, from 15s. to 20s. per week. Board and lodging for a mechanic or labourer, 7s. to 9s. 6d. per week, for which he will get tea or coffee, with meat for breakfast, a good dinner, and supper at night.

“ Rate of wages, without food, generally in the Canadas.—Ship-carpenters, joiners, &c. from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day. Bricklayers or stonemasons, from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day. Labourers, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* per day. Labourers in the country, 40*s.* per month, and fed. All handicraft tradesmen, from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day. House servants, men, from 26*s.* to 36*s.* per month, with food. Females, 20*s.* to 30*s.* per month, with food.

“ House rent in Quebec or Montreal.—A first-rate private dwelling-house from 100*l.* to 150*l.* per year, unfurnished. Shops, according to situation, from 30*l.* to 100*l.* Tradesmen's dwellings, from 20*l.* to 30*l.* Inferior class, 10*l.* to 15*l.* A farm of 100 acres, with twenty or thirty acres clear, may be purchased in the Canadas for, from 150*l.* to 300*l.*, according to the situation.

“ Passage from Quebec to Montreal, 180 miles, by steam-boats, one of which leaves each place daily, commencing the end of April, and ending the latter end of November.—Cabin, including board, &c. which is very luxurious and abundant, from 20*s.* to 30*s.* Steerage, without board, from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* Nearly a similar rate may be considered an average data, in proportion to distance, in travelling by steam, in all the great lakes and rivers in North America. Time, in going from Quebec

to Montreal, thirty hours. Ditto, in returning, twenty-four hours. From Montreal to York, Upper Canada, two to three days. If by Durham boats, which are cheapest for emigrants, the total expense to York, including provisions for family, about 3*l.* 15*s.* To Prescott or Ogdensburg, including food, about 2*l.* From Buffalow, or Niagara, there are numerous conveyances, either by steam-boats or sailing-vessels to the Talbot settlement, and every where about Lake Erie; and cheap conveyances to the states of Ohio, back parts of Pennsylvania, Illinois, Michigan, Mississippi Territory, Kentucky, Tennessee, and the adjacent country. Steam-boats and coaches ply daily from Montreal towards New York; also to Upper Canada, and up the Ottawa; and, in fact, during the summer months, conveyances in every direction from Montreal are to be found daily; and, when winter sets in, travelling is good and expeditious by sledging, or caryoling upon the snow or ice, which generally commences about Christmas, and continues till the end of March.

“Route for an Englishman’s family wishing to proceed from New York to settle in Upper Canada.—From New York to Albany the expense will be for 160 miles, 4*s.* 6*d.* per head. Albany to Rochester, 13*s.* 6*d.* Rochester to Young’s Town in Upper

Canada, 4s. 6d. Children, under twelve years, half price. Infants, gratis. Baggage, when exceeding a moderate quantity, from New York to Upper Canada, 4s. 6d. per cwt.

“ Distances.—New York to Albany by the Hudson River, 160 miles. Albany to Utica by the canal, 109 miles. Utica to Rochester by the canal, 160 miles. Rochester to Niagara River in Upper Canada, by steam-boat, 80 miles. Total distance from New York to Niagara, 509 miles.

“ Price of provisions at Montreal and Quebec.—Beef (winter), $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. Ditto (summer), $3\frac{1}{2}d.$ to 4d. per lb. Mutton (winter), $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. Ditto (summer), 5d. to 6d. per lb. Veal (summer), 6d. to 7d. per lb. Ditto (winter), $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ to 3d. per lb. Butter, 6d. to 9d. per lb. Flour, 20s. to 26s. per 196 lb. Hams, 5d. to 7d. per lb. Cheese, 3d. to 6d. per lb.

“ The rates in the country parts are much lower than the above.

“ Wheat, in the Canadas, according to distance from the part of export, 3s. to 5s. per bushel. Oats, 1s. 4d. to 2s. per bushel. Potatoes, 1s. to 2s. per bushel. A good goose or turkey, 1s. to 1s. 6d. A pair of barn-door fowls, 10d. to 1s. 2d.

“ Vegetables in every part remarkably good and cheap; and also fish in great abundance.

“ Coals, at Quebec or Montreal, 30*s.* to 35*s.* per chaldron, but wood chiefly burnt.

“ Rum, 4*s.* to 5*s.*, Cognac Brandy, 6*s.* to 6*s.* 6*d.*, Whiskey, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* per gallon. Sugar, 6*d.* to 7*d.* per lb., Hyson tea, 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per lb., Congou, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per lb., Bohea, 2*s.* per lb. Madeira wine, 24*s.* to 40*s.*, Port, 20*s.* to 24*s.*, Claret, 20*s.* to 30*s.*, Champagne, 40*s.* to 60*s.*, all per dozen.”

The remaining part of the chapter may be rendered plainer by a division into sections; because, in that case only one subject will have to be considered at a time.

SECTION I.—PREPARATION FOR THE VOYAGE.

Besides the mere means of departure, there are other preparations which the emigrant must make if he is to emigrate comfortably and successfully; and it needs not be added that, if he is not comfortable he can hardly be successful.

The first thing that the emigrant should prepare, is his mind, for that must be a principal means of supporting him at all times, and his only support when every thing else fails: therefore, the resolution to emigrate must not be hastily taken. It

must be well weighed, and the emigrant must convince himself that it is the very best step that he can take. He must do that, not upon any false hope—any golden dream of good luck, but upon the plain and straight-forward principle that, if he work harder in the country to which he is going, he shall win more. He may look forward to future ease in that country; but he must bear in mind, that he must work first—that if he is indolent there, he must be a beggar still, and a beggar starving to death in the wilderness, without any one to relieve him.

He must forget every thing behind, that is, he must never look back for any assistance; but bear in mind that, as he is to have all the reward, he must make all the exertion. Nothing must bend him from his purpose; and though he ought to make every effort for preventing such a result, he must be prepared to perish in the attempt rather than turn back. When the mind is thus prepared, the victory is half won, and all the rest is mere matter of detail and arrangement.

If the emigrant is a family man, he may have some trouble with his family. Children, indeed, will go any where for novelty; but even the best meaning of wives may occasion a good deal of trouble, and the man may be justified in persuad-

ing his wife into the measure, by arguments that would be neither safe nor wise in his own case. The woman is more a creature of the moment than the man, and therefore it is more difficult to break her from the feeling of the moment. It must be done, however, firmly though temperately; and if no other argument will prevail, the ultimate, "I'll go without you," if persevered in without any wavering, seldom fails. Once departed from, however, it destroys all others, and becomes useless itself; and therefore it must not be resorted to except in cases of extremity.

When the emigrant and his family are prepared, the next thing is to "See their way to the ship." There must be no hankering after favourite articles, unless they are so small that they can be carried about the person in a wild forest. Every consideration must be one of economy; and if the land-journey to the port is long, it will be a question whether articles that would be useful on the voyage, or after landing, should not be sold and replaced at the port. The port, too, should be the nearest, for the most expensive and the least profitable part of an emigrant's journey, is that overland in the country which he is leaving. There are many cases in which single men who have not money to spare, can work themselves to the port

by stages. Married men may in many instances do the same, and leave their families to follow them by the coach or the waggon, when matters are properly prepared for them. It is a good general rule, never to put women and children in motion until it be absolutely necessary, because their motions backwards and forwards, are more fatiguing to themselves, proportionally more costly, and less useful than those of men. Families and homes are so closely associated, that, unless in cases where there is money to squander, a family should always be at home when there is one, and in the case of a change, they should shift from home to home by the shortest and most expeditious route possible.

Nothing makes a sea voyage, however short,—and the shortest feels long enough to those who have never been at sea before,—more agreeable than confidence in the goodness or seaworthiness of the ship, and the skill of the captain. The good ship, and the captain in whom people can have confidence, cost no more than those which are doubtful, and therefore they should be looked out for.

Ships that are constructed expressly for the conveyance of passengers, are unquestionably the best; and it is also best to go with captains who are

well acquainted with the voyage,—with all its chances and dangers, and all the places at which it may be necessary to take shelter in cases of emergency. The cheapest passages may generally be made in vessels that resort to St. John's, Pictou, or Miramichi, for cargoes of timber; and there are now steam-boats, from Miramichi to Quebec; but as those vessels which are employed in the timber trade, and go out in ballast, or with only part freights for the purpose of bringing home cargoes of timber, are generally of an inferior class, they often make longer, and generally more disagreeable passages than the others. So that, when the inferiority of the vessel, the trouble and expense of the steam-boat, and the delay that often takes place before an emigrant can get his family and appointments re-shipped, are taken into the account, it will be found that upon the whole the passage either for the Ottawa district of Lower Canada, or for Upper Canada, had better be taken to Quebec at once. The emigrant is to consider that every day by which his passage is prolonged is a day lost to him, not only in the keep of himself and his family, but in his labour; and if he shall linger a week by the way, any where or from any cause, he thereby throws away the time, and consumes the provisions that would go a good way to-

ward the erecting of a temporary house, in which he could spend the first winter upon his allotment of land. If an emigrant for the interior is obliged to spend a few days, he should spend them at Quebec or at Montreal, in preference to any place farther down the St. Lawrence; because these are the chief points at which he can get that local information which is to be most useful to him.

The general rule in looking out for a vessel, is to find one whose voyage is from the port nearest to the place which he leaves, directly, without any intermediate stoppage, to the port nearest the place where he is to settle.

The furnishings for the voyage, vary of course with its expected length; and also with the condition and ability of the emigrant. In all cases there should be plenty; but in every case the store should be used with great economy. It should also be borne in mind, that where there is no sea-sickness, or after the sea-sickness is over, a ship is a hungry habitation, and people actually eat more then than they do on shore. The plainer the sea stock is the better; because, as the emigrant must make luxuries for himself before he can have any in the wilderness, without paying an extravagantly high price, the sooner he accustoms himself to the

sober and substantial fare of the new country the better. Where there is a family, too, it is all the better that there should be a little labour in the getting ready of the meals. Hasty puddings, gruels, and plain soups, are much better than even common biscuits; because the latter would be costly, if they had to be carried for several hundred miles through the woods. To those who can afford the expense, a bag of grain and a small steel mill are very useful on the voyage; the latter is a most convenient domestic implement in a new settlement. The grain, which may be wheat, or any other single kind, or a mixture of wheat and rye, keeps better than flour; and if it is dried in an iron pot, a utensil of great service in an emigrant's family, it will furnish very fresh meal, either for puddings or plain cakes. A small portion of the husk, though it makes the meal darker, makes it more wholesome, than when it is perfectly clean; and a common hair searce, does quite well for bolting. The few dishes and bowls that are used are most serviceable when of timber; they are less liable to be broken, and the keeping of them clean is an occupation. It is desirable that the whole family should be busy at something or other when on board ship. That is the best preventive, both of sickness and fear, and it prevents idle habits from

being contracted by those who are going to a situation where idleness is the greatest evil that can befall them. Hooped dishes are the best ones, as they are not liable to split, and it is no bad exercise for the emigrant and his sons, if he has any old enough, to practice the making of such vessels out of a few bits of stick by the way; and the more rude the tools with which that is done the better. Very good and even handsome domestic articles have been made before now, with no other tool than an axe and pocket knife, with an awl or gimlet, when holes and pegs are necessary.

Another very useful preparation is the materials of a mimic log-house. A bundle of sticks may be had for a few pence. When the emigrants are on board, the men, and especially the boys, will find something more than amusement in cutting them of the proper lengths for sides and ends, notching them when they cross the corners, piling them up, making a roof, and so finishing a miniature habitation. Plain models of houses, and of the more necessary implements used in the settlements, would make excellent additions in every emigrant's ship; because by the assistance of them, a clever emigrant might have all his new trades half learned before he landed; and time which otherwise is absolutely lost, would thus be applied to the most

useful of all purposes. Even a gnarly piece of wood, to exercise the axe upon, is good for keeping the hand employed ; and the notion of a Scotchman having always a knife and stick in his fingers, which is ridiculed in English company, is far from a bad one among emigrants.

What the emigrant is to take with him, must in so far depend upon his means ; but the general maxim is, that he should take as much as he can in the shape of money, not in his pocket, but in drafts, payable on demand, for which he will get a profit of from six to nine per cent. by the exchange. Some people have an idea that hard cash in their pockets, is the securest way of carrying money, but this is wrong. It is liable to be lost ; and if they have been pinched in the former part of their lives, they are under a constant temptation to spend it. A man's money is very often in more danger from himself than from any body else. A draft is safe from that danger ; and though it is destroyed by accident, the property is not lost, as the worst that can happen is a little delay, and the profit mentioned is a clear gain.

In taking out other matters, there is of course no need for taking any thing of wood, carrying wood to Canada would be worse than the old story of carrying coals to Newcastle ; because if the land

which the emigrant chooses is worth cultivating, his first and severest labour is the destruction of wood. Clothes are among the most advantageous things; and as the settlers must scramble about in all weathers, hot and cold, wet and dry, stout flannels, and coarse cloths of the twilled kinds, with thick threads which are not easily torn, are by far the best. Emigrants must not mind fashion; the best coat and breeches in Canada, are those that can come farthest through the brush with fewest holes in them; and probably there is not a better article for the purpose than Scotch blanket, or what is in that country called "plaiding."

After articles of clothing, those of metal are the most serviceable, especially tools; but the emigrant should inform himself of the kinds that are to be the most useful, before he makes purchases; and, indeed, as metal articles are carried chiefly to St. Lawrence in those vessels that go for cargoes of wood and potash, they may generally be purchased at the nearest town to the emigrant's location, for very little more than they can be purchased in England,—for less, certainly, than the emigrant who pays his freight can purchase them in Britain and carry them there; because they are done in the general way of trade, when quantity lessens the expense on the individual article; and

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at the same time the emigrant is saved all the trouble of taking care of them by the way. It is doubtful even whether there be any saving in taking out blankets and articles of that description, in any greater number than are absolutely necessary on the voyage. They are kicked about, soiled, and destroyed at sea, and when the land journey comes they are a burden ; and with all the provisions in formation, that even sensible emigrants can obtain, they often find that what they take with them does not turn out to be that which is most useful. Buchanan's general directions, quoted in the early part of this chapter, are probably sufficient.

There is one thing which the emigrant must be careful not to mistake, and that is, not to fancy that he is a migrant, and changing merely his place, and not his country. The migrant wishes to follow as nearly as he can the customs to which he has been habituated, and he accordingly takes an outfit with him to serve him for years ; but were the emigrant to do so he would be merely throwing an obstacle in his own way, and protracting and rendering more difficult and more disagreeable his perfect naturalization in the country to which he goes. All his work, and all the materials of his work, are to be found in that new country ; and all

that is wanted of him is capability, as little clogged by old recollections as possible.

Though it is apt to be overlooked in the common estimates, the most valuable commodity that the emigrant can carry with him is knowledge,—plain, well-grounded knowledge of everyday matters,—and especially knowledge of the country to which he is going. Though reading and writing may appear to be of less immediate necessity and use than bodily strength and activity, they are almost equally indispensable; and if some of the family are not capable of them, the whole will be in a most lonely and deplorable state. It is especially necessary that emigrants should have some religious knowledge; and that, before any parent endeavours to procure and prepare a freehold dwelling for his family in this world, he should be capable of communicating to them the great points of information which are most essential for their wellbeing in the world to come. That is especially necessary, not only with a view to that future world, but with a view to their proper conduct in the present life. In such a country, the moral restraints of law and public opinion operate lightly, because in so scattered a population, faults are easily concealed; and the ministers of justice are so far away, that chastisement almost ceases to

have the proper effect before the fault is discovered.

There is a farther consideration of this branch of the subject, which, though people are very apt to lose sight of it, is yet of very great importance to the happiness of the individual, and to the value of the society which is forming in the new country. Where the means of religion are everywhere, and access to them is easy to all, those very circumstances have at least a good deal of the effect of religion itself upon the careless; and though the fear is not so strong, people who live in the neglect of religion have still considerable and habitual fears of offending against the religion of others. The wholesome effect of those fears is far from being an argument for the neglect of religion; but it is a strong proof of the goodness of religion itself, which thus preserves in the ways of decency and duty those by whom it is almost purposely neglected. By religion here, is not meant church-going, or ceremony of any kind whatever; for there may be a great deal of these where there is very little religion, or there may be a great deal of religion where there is very little of these. The religion which is meant is that which is shown by the conduct of people, and which restrains their bad passions in those important moments of life

when neither the eye of the law nor that of society is upon them. If that religion is wanting, no very large number of persons can exist without finding a substitute for it; and therefore if a colony is formed of persons ignorant of the true religion, they are certain to frame a superstition; and a superstition formed in the gloom of a Canadian winter, and the depths of the Canadian forests, would be a dreadful one, as was proved by the conduct of the natives of North America before they had any intercourse with Europeans. In such a country, men without the knowledge of God, almost as a matter of course, imagine to themselves as many separate gods as there are little knots or parties; and half the business of such people becomes a warfare of men and gods upon each other. That is the true reason why savages are so pugnacious; and that again is the reason why they never become civilized. In a colony to which all are invited, religion should be free in its forms, but it should be as powerful and as pure as possible in its spirit. We are apt not to think of it; but to be placed alone in a wilderness, and know nothing of the protection of God, is certainly the most dreadful state of destitution to which a human being can be reduced.

After religious knowledge, the knowledge of the

new country is most important; and after that, again, a general knowledge of the productions and appearances of Nature. A man who goes to the wilds without any counsellor should be prepared never to stand in stupid wonder at any novelty he may see, but should be at once capable of determining to what useful purpose it can be turned. The first steps of that knowledge are not to be obtained without some books; but after all it is not book-learning that is wanted. The mere appetite for reading is never much of a virtue—very generally it is vice; and it often happens that they who read the most have the least information. A few good things to harmonize with knowledge got by observation, and to set that actively to work, are all that is essential; and to carry a fashionable library into a Canadian forest would be about as absurd as it would be to carry thither the furnishings necessary for a fashionable party in the metropolis. A fashionable novel would be just as unserviceable an article as Paganini, or even his fiddle,—indeed, much more so, for in the pauses of the bull-frog music, the fiddle might have some chance of being heard, and wild animals have some feeling of music, but none of novels.

SECTION II.—THE VOYAGE.

Many of the particulars of the voyage have been anticipated in the former section; and those that remain may be stated somewhat briefly. It has been said that the port should be the nearest one to the residence of the intended emigrant, and that he should not linger idly by the way, or after he gets there. He must be careful not to be too late and miss the ship; because that is a great loss in the meantime, and a great damper afterwards. There is just as much harm in being too soon. Idle habits are acquired, and money wasted by that means. In all the steps of his progress the emigrant's thoughts should always be in a state of the greatest activity, should be cool and reflective; for if he allows himself to get into a bustle he is almost certain of forgetting something; and as he cannot return to amend it, it will disturb him as much as if it were a matter of the very highest importance.

When the sides of the country are accessible with nearly equal ease, the west side, whether of Britain or of Ireland, should be preferred in going to Canada. The voyage is shorter and also much less hazardous in bad weather; for when the south-west of Ireland, or the north-west points of the

Scottish Isles are cleared, the voyage across the Atlantic is nearly half performed.

The early part of the season is beyond all calculation the best for departure; and to have the most certain chance of a short and comfortable voyage, the departure should be about the first of April. That is favourable in every way. The winds, both on the south end and on the north end of Britain, are more steady from the east than at any other season; and thus the ship gets much sooner clear of the land. The Atlantic is also less stormy at that season, and the east winds extend nearer to the shore. The bay of St. Lawrence has a greater chance of being free from icebergs, and the ship arrives in Canada not only at the best time for the emigrants, but also for getting a cargo homeward; and therefore, those early summer trips are cheaper as well as better than if they were undertaken at any other time of the year.

If the voyages are delayed till Midsummer, or even till after the first of June, they are much longer and more disastrous than those undertaken in the early part of the season. If there be many emigrants, room between decks is a vast advantage, whether that room consists of length or of height. Length gives more room for berthage; and height makes the berths more airy and healthy. An un-

incumbered deck and secure nettings are also of much advantage in fine weather. A ship will not indeed carry a great number of passengers with much comfort, unless it has been partially constructed on purpose. Cleanliness is of the utmost consequence; and a fast sailing vessel with a skilful captain, is worth a few shillings more in freight even to the poorest emigrant, as it is saved in provisions, and in health and strength on landing. Nor are those considerations less worthy the attention of those who contract for the sending out of emigrants, than they are of persons who emigrate on their own account. Upon such contracting parties the obligation to obtain the very best accommodation is indeed stronger, inasmuch as they who take upon them the management of others are morally pledged to a greater responsibility than they who manage for themselves.

After the land is cleared, if it is favourable weather, there seldom occurs any thing particular in crossing the Atlantic, until the great fishing-banks of Newfoundland are approached. In this part of the passage all that the emigrant has got to do is, to cook his victuals, read his books on Canada, if he has got any, and practise the little domestic arts that have been already mentioned. In taking exercise upon the deck, he should be careful not

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to be in the way of the sailors, or to tease them with idle questions, while at their work. There is seldom much useful information for an emigrant to be got from the common sailors on board a ship, who are generally not only the worst informants of all persons respecting matters on land, but the most erroneous and prejudiced in the little information that they have. The emigrant should be civil in all cases where it is necessary to have intercourse with them, but the less of that intercourse the better. In all their intercourse with passengers of any description, the chief object of the common sailors is to get grog; and if the passengers make themselves too familiar with them, they will *yaw* the ship in order to splash them with seas, and play a variety of other unpleasant tricks, in order to accomplish that object.

It is essential, however, that passengers on board a ship should not be peevish, but treat one another with the utmost civility and good-humour; and properly improved, the voyage makes a much better preparation for the life which the emigrant is to enter upon, than if there were no voyage in the case. Females, though probably a little more inclined to be sick than men, are still very handy at sea, and perhaps accommodate themselves more speedily and completely to the circumstances than

the other sex. Generally speaking, they can be managed by a little attention, and a few words bordering upon flattery.

When the banks of Newfoundland are approached, more especially in the early part of the season, thick fogs are often encountered. If those are apprehended, they should be provided against by thick woollen clothes, as they are attended with very severe cold in the atmosphere. These fogs are often so close that it is difficult to see the one end of the ship from the other; and it is too dark for reading, even at mid-day without candles. Fog-horns are blown at short intervals on board every ship day and night while the fog continues; and on shore, in Newfoundland, and sometimes in the moored vessels on the fishing-bank, fog-bells are tolled. Lights are comparatively of little use, as they cannot be seen at any distance. Icebergs are occasionally met with, floating or grounded on the banks. The tops of these sometimes rise 150 or 200 feet, and they occasion a great increase of the cold. Vessels, however, generally avoid the thick of the fogs, so that the emigrant has not much to apprehend in the way of annoyance, and nothing whatever in that of danger from those gloomy states of the atmosphere.

Vessels are also sometimes overtaken by fogs, in

the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which though they last a shorter time, are rather more hazardous than those on the banks, as during their continuance there is some difficulty in finding the channels, and the set of the currents is apt to carry a vessel too far northward. When there is no fog, or after the fog has cleared away, the voyage up the St. Lawrence is rather agreeable, from the bold character of the shores—consisting of wild rocks alternating with trees, and from the number of islands in the estuary. As Quebec is approached, those islands begin to exhibit signs of cultivation, but the soil is not very good, or the crops luxuriant, more especially those of wheat.

From the western parts of Ireland, the voyage is sometimes made in five or six weeks; and eight weeks may be considered as about the fair average; so that vessels departing about the middle of April, may be expected to reach Quebec early in June. Some delay always take place in consequence of the custom-house regulations, but the best plan for emigrants who have but limited funds, is to remain quietly in the ship until all these matters are settled. The appearance of the people at Quebec seems singular to English eyes, and their language is anything but harmony to

English ears. The great bulk of the people are of French extraction, and of course the frame work of their language is French; but it is diversified by so many words of other languages, that it has degenerated, or been changed into a sort of *patois*. As there are natives of very many countries, or at least their descendants in Quebec, the whole language is a singular confusion; and it would be in vain for a plain Englishman to ask for information in the streets. Casual information obtained in that way is not very valuable any where; and it is perhaps less attainable in Quebec than in most other places. Perhaps that is an advantage to the emigrant; as he has little inducement to linger there, and of course pushes on to his ultimate destination, as soon as ever he can.

SECTION III.—JOURNEY TO THE INTERIOR.

If the emigrant has gone out under the direction of the Canada Company, or of any other parties who take charge of those matters, he will of course find means of removal from Quebec provided for him, in probably a better and cheaper manner than an independent emigrant can provide there for

himself; and thus it becomes a matter of calculation whether an emigrant should or should not go under the auspices of some such company.

The Company of course expect a profit at the hands of the emigrant; and it would be useless to attempt disguising that fact; because without, not the hope merely, but the reasonable certainty of such a profit, no Company would be established; and from the knowledge which the Directors and Agents have of all local matters, it is extremely probable, that even allowing for their profits, an emigrant who has no friends in the country, to whom he can immediately go, and no friends to maintain him until he acquire the requisite degree of local knowledge, is in the end cheaper with them, than in any other way. Emigrants who have friends in the country, generally receive the requisite instructions from those friends; and those who can afford time to acquire information resort into the interior, and may perhaps find their advantage in taking the first season to make a tour of the leading points in the districts, ascending by the St. Lawrence, at least as far as York, or better still, to the very extremity of Upper Canada, during the summer months, and descending again by land; after the snow has fallen, the frost sets in, and the roads are practicable all over the country. Even in ascend-

ing upon a reconnoissance of this kind, it is perhaps desirable not to take the water immediately by the St. Lawrence, because there is very little to tempt settlers on the line of the St. Lawrence, from Montreal to near the head of Lake Ontario, the whole shore of the river being already settled, and the interior being less desirable than the unsettled land in some other places. To proceed up the Ottawa as far as Hull, and the examination might be profitably extended as far as Lac du Chats; and it would be all the better if the progress upward were made on the left bank of the river, and that downward on the right. Kingston might then be proceeded for, along the Rideau line, Lake Ontario either navigated, or its northern shore skirted to its western termination; and then returning by Niagara, (for every *observer* in Canada should take a peep at the Falls, notwithstanding that the descriptions of them are so hackneyed), and so along Lake Erie, or its northern shore, to Amherstburg. The Huron and Guelph districts, belonging to the Canada Company, are well worthy of being examined; and so are some tracts along the Thames and the Ouse, although upon the banks of these rivers, and more especially the latter, there are many pine-heights; and naked, arid, plains, which in the present thinly-peopled state of the

country, would not bear to be cultivated. The richer lands on some parts of these rivers, are also often swampy and not very healthy in their present state: but where drainage can be accomplished within the reasonable means of an emigrant, these are much more likely subjects than the dry and thirsty heights.

In returning, the exploring emigrant should keep as much in the back country as he possibly can, without getting entangled in the forests. On such an excursion the less that he carries with him the better; but still it is desirable that he should have a good map, a pocket-compass, a watch to keep pretty correct time, and if he has a pocket-sextant, and can take "a sight" for latitude, or for time to regulate his watch, he will feel all the more secure, and therefore have his mind more at ease to observe the nature and value of the country. On such an excursion it is desirable to be ready to hear all parties, and encourage them to furnish every information of which they may be possessed; but it is prudent to be slow in acting upon the information so obtained.

For the instruction of those emigrants who may intend to purchase crown lands on the spot, after examination of their quality, it may not be amiss to give a short abstract of the crown regulations, and some account of the office fees.

According to the regulations, the Commissioner is to report, at least once a year, the quantity of disposable land in the district, stating the quantity upon which there is timber fit for the navy, as such land is not to be disposed of, till that timber is cut down. The Commissioner generally also names the upset price; and if the Governor so pleases he orders a sale.

When a sale is ordered, the particulars are advertised in the Gazette and Provincial newspapers; and when the time comes, if nobody offer the upset price, there is, generally speaking, no sale.

In cases of sale, Government never sells more than 1200 acres in one lot. The purchase-money is paid in four instalments, one down, and one at the end of each of three successive years without interest.

Poorer emigrants may have land, not exceeding 200 acres, at a quit-rent, equal to four per cent. on the purchase-money, payable yearly.

If the purchaser fail in paying his instalments, or the poor emigrant his quit-rent, an ejection, and re-sale take place; the quit-rent may also be bought up at any time, for twenty years' purchase, by instalments, not exceeding four; but if some of those are paid, and the occupant fails in others, he may be ejected and the land re-sold, after the

quit-rent has absorbed the instalments that are paid.

Public notice to be annually given of the parties in arrears, whether for instalments or quit-rents ; and if these are not paid up, the lands are re-sold the following year,—the surplus, if any, to go to the party ejected.

Land to be granted at the current sales only, except poor emigrants take quantities not exceeding 200 acres, and these may be obtained at any time, on the conditions of the last sale.

In districts which are not surveyed, permissions of occupancy may be granted, upon payment of a quit-rent, and that quit-rent may be redeemed at twenty years' purchase, any time within seven years. No patent is to be granted, and no transfer of the property made, until all the purchase-money is paid, and also all the arrears of quit-rent and other matters. The following quotation from Mr. E. A. Talbot's "Five Years in the Canadas," will show that the purchase-money is not the only expense that the person obtaining a *grant* of crown land has to bear.

"In the first settlements of the country, as might naturally be expected, the shores of the St. Lawrence, and of the Lakes Ontario, Erie, and St. Clair, became the property and choice of those

persons who first arrived in the province. The banks of the rivers which empty themselves into these lakes, and all the circumjacent country, have, since the termination of the war, become entirely settled; so that it is now impossible to procure land, except by purchase, in any part of Upper Canada, in which the various great advantages of situation are attainable. But this is of little consequence to any except the poorest class of emigrants; for those who carry 'their friend in their pocket,' may purchase land in the finest and most eligible townships, for less than is paid for a government *grant*, in the midst of interminable forests. This is an assertion which may surprise persons who are unacquainted with the country, and offend the chaste ears of others, who are well enough acquainted with it. But it is not a mere assertion; it is a stubborn fact, the validity of which I shall be able to substantiate by arguments that may bid defiance to representation, and that present themselves incidentally in the discussion of emigration.

“ Before the administration of the present Lieutenant-Governor, every person who applied for land obtained 200 acres or more on the payment of the under-mentioned fees :—

<i>Acres</i>				£.	s.	d.
200	.	.	.	8	8	9
300	.	.	.	12	13	1½
400	.	.	.	16	17	6
500	.	.	.	21	1	10½
600	.	.	.	25	6	3
700	.	.	.	29	10	7½
800	.	.	.	33	15	0
900	.	.	.	37	9	4½
1000	.	.	.	42	3	9
1100	.	.	.	46	8	1½
1200	.	.	.	50	12	6

“ In January 1819, these fees were increased to the following sums, and the lower class of emigrants allowed only 100 acres :—

<i>Acres</i>				£.	s.	d.
100	.	.	.	5	14	1
200	.	.	.	16	17	6
300	.	.	.	24	11	7
400	.	.	.	32	5	8
500	.	.	.	39	13	9
600	.	.	.	47	18	10
700	.	.	.	55	17	11
800	.	.	.	63	2	0
900	.	.	.	70	16	0
1000	.	.	.	78	10	2
1100	.	.	.	86	4	3
1200	.	.	.	93	18	4

“ *And now that unfortunate emigrants procure money less easily than it could be procured heretofore, the fees are raised to the following enormous amount :—Fifty acres to pauper emigrants gratis.*

<i>Acres.</i>					£	s.	d.
100	.	.	.	.	12	0	0
200	.	.	.	.	30	0	0
300	.	.	.	.	60	0	0
400	.	.	.	.	75	0	0
500	.	.	.	.	125	0	0
600	.	.	.	.	150	0	0
700	.	.	.	.	175	0	0
800	.	.	.	.	200	0	0
900	.	.	.	.	225	0	0
1000	.	.	.	.	250	0	0
1100	.	.	.	.	275	0	0
1200	.	.	.	.	300	0	0

“ Those sums are payable in three equal instalments: the **FIRST** on the receipt of a location-ticket, which is always obtained as soon as the Council have determined on the quantity of land to which the applicant is entitled: the **SECOND**, on filing a certificate of settlement duty: and the **THIRD**, on receipt of the *fiat* for a patent. Every British subject, of what stamp soever his creed, is entitled, on his arrival at the seat of Government

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for Upper Canada, to receive any quantity of land within the provincial limits of 1200 acres, which he may possess the means of cultivating, and for which he is willing to pay the required fees.

“ I do not question the right of Government to charge such enormous fees on lands which it has fairly purchased, and is of course entitled to dispose of in such way and manner as may most effectually accomplish the objects which it has in view; but if it be the wish of England to increase the population of Canada, and thus render it of some value to the parent-country, I very much doubt the policy of those measures which the Canadian Government is now pursuing. Since the increase of the fees, I have known many emigrants who came here with a determination of settling in the country, but who—on finding that the Government, instead of freely GRANTING land to the unfortunate among its subjects, was actually in the habit of SELLING IT *at an extravagant rate*—turned their backs on the British colonies, and immediately went over to the United States, to add strength and numbers to our already formidable rivals. I can confidently state, that since the new scale of fees was adopted there have not been five hundred-acre lots of land taken up for the one hundred which were previously granted. The object of increasing the fees, whatever it might

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have been, must therefore have defeated itself; unless, indeed, it was to retard the settlement of the country. Some persons, perhaps, in the plenitude of their loyalty, may, for the honour of the thing, prefer dealing with Government on these terms, to dealing with private individuals on much more advantageous terms: but these persons, if I may be allowed such plainness of speech, have much more money than wit. For land, in townships which have been long settled, and whose contiguity to navigable rivers, gives them a decided superiority over Government-lands, can now be *purchased* for less money than is required in accepting a *grant* of an equal number of acres from Government."

Such is the account given of the fees on Government grants of land. It may be proper in juxtaposition with the account of them, to take some notice of

The Canada Company.

That Company was projected about the notorious time of projects in 1824 and 1825, for improving the waste lands in Canada, making roads, and other objects for the benefit of the country. Their original purchase was the reserved crown and church lands in the different townships; but as there was found to be some difficulty about the

church lands, one million acres of other land was given to the Company instead. The land which the Company selected was the tract on Lake Huron already mentioned, on which the town of Goderich has been founded; they began their operations in 1827, and the sale and settlement of their lands have been considerable. Land in the country there, has sold at from 7s. 6d. to 10s. an acre; and building lots in the towns about 10l. an acre.

Good land may be said to average about 10s. which are paid to the agents of the Company by five instalments of 2s. each. The first down, and the others at intervals of a year. The first instalment may be paid in London, or at any other part where the Company have agents; and those going out may also deposit their money with the Company and have it returned in Canada, including the gain by the exchange.

The Company also convey settlers from Quebec or Montreal to York, at their expense, if the settlers have paid one instalment of 2s. on not less than 100 acres, that is a sum of not less than 10l. If on the arrival of the emigrants at York, they should prefer any other mode to that of settling upon the Company's lands, the Company will return the money to them, after deducting the expenses to York.

The Company give information in answer to post-paid letters to the following addresses :—

N. S. Price, Esq., Secretary, St. Helen's Place,
London.

J. Davidson, Esq., Quebec.

Messrs. Hart, Logan and Co., Montreal.

J. C. Buchanan, Esq., New York.

Henry William Allan, and Thomas Mercer Jones,
York, Upper Canada.

Messrs. W. D. and W. E. Acraman, Bristol.

James Adam, Esq., Edinburgh.

John Astle, Esq., Dublin.

Sexton Baylee, Esq., Cork.

George Buchanan, Esq., Armagh, Londonderry.

John Carroll, Esq., Limerick.

Mr. Thomas W. Evans, Liverpool.

Messrs. Robert Ewing and Co., Greenock.

Messrs. Gilkison and Brown, Glasgow.

Messrs. Watson and Graves, New Ross.

It must of course be useful to those who intend to leave any part of the United Kingdom, under the auspices of the Company, to apply to the nearest agent to the place of their residence, before they think of moving; and if the inquiries which are made are all to the purpose, the proper answers may be depended upon. It must be understood, however, that all who thus apply to the Company

must be in a condition to pay the passage to Quebec, and to deposit either there, or before sailing, one instalment on their land, which, as has been said, is in no case less than 10*l*.

If emigrants are to find their own way into the interior from Quebec, the fares are not extravagant. A mere passage on the deck of the steamboat to Montreal may be had at any time when the navigation of the river is open, for 5*s*., and there have been instances in which it has been as low as 2*s*. 6*d*. Any place on the shore of Lake Ontario may be reached for not more than 30*s*., exclusive of provisions, which can be obtained at moderate prices. The land travelling toward the settlement from the best part of the river or lake navigation, is a matter which must be regulated by the condition of the parties, and what may be learned on the spot. If there are women and children in the case, and if the settlement is to be made in the wilds, the women and children had better be left till there is some sort of dwelling constructed.

It is sometimes better to purchase cleared lands than those that are still in a state of nature, and cleared lands may often be had cheap. But there is a good deal of inquiry and caution necessary in these cases, as the cleared land is often parted with

because it has proved to be of an inferior quality to what was expected ; or because it has been exhausted by improper management. In both of these cases it is of less value than good land with the timber upon it ; and unless there be some vestiges of the original timber remaining, it is seldom safe to buy cleared land without very satisfactory accounts both of its character, and of that of the seller.

SECTION IV.—SETTLING.

If that is done upon land which is in whole or in part cleared, or in the vicinity of land that is so, it is comparatively a simple matter ; but if the emigrant goes into a place that is wholly new (and in such places he may often have a chance of better land), he may have to “rummage,” that is, to make his way as he best can through the wild woods. Some very lively and graphic accounts of that operation are given by the late Mr. John Mactaggart, engineer on the Rideau canal, from which it may not be amiss to make a few short extracts ; only it must be borne in mind that he was in quest of levels, and the emigrant is in quest of lands.

“ Having cantered away a couple of miles,” says

Mr. Mactaggart, " through cleared land, we began to enter the wilderness, and as I am no great horseman, let the animal on the road be ever so good, I soon found my nose and eyes beginning to get scratched to death from the brushwood brushing and rubbing against them; and now, alas! I found myself comfortably landed on my back on the trunk of an old tree that had fallen by age many years before. On looking round me, I found my quiet old pony, thinking for a wonder what was become of me, one of his feet having trod out the crown of a new thirty-shilling hat, which I had purchased in London. My companions gathered round, but could not prevail on me to mount again; the guide led the horse, and I trudged along on foot. Getting weary, however, and seeing the comparatively easy manner in which my American friends got along, in spite of the thick brushwood and old trees that lay stretching near each other at all angles, I got upon the back of the quiet little animal again, but now found it almost impossible to follow my companions without getting myself bruised at all quarters, or perhaps some of my bones broken, they had got about a hundred yards before, and hallooed out to me to follow. I exerted myself to the utmost, but one of my legs getting into the cleft of a small tree, I

was torn off the horse's back, and left among the briars again."

So much for equestrianship in a Canadian forest ; let us now see how it fares with pedestrians. In winter, 1826, Mactaggart went into the woods with three assistants, three axe-men, and two carriers of provisions :—

" We started, and broke through the thickets of those dismal swamps, directing a person to go about half a mile before, and wind a horn, keeping one place till those that were behind came up ; so that, by the compass and the sound, there being no sun, we might better grope out our course. For in the woods you have not only to keep a course, but to discover what that course is." * * * *

" When night drew on, two of the axe-men went to rig the wig-wam *shanty* by the side of a swamp. This was done for two reasons, or say three ; first, because water could be had in the swamps to drink and to cook with, if the ice were broken to get at it ; secondly, the boughs of the hemlock grow more bushy in such places, and are so far more easily obtained to cover the shanty ; and, thirdly, there are generally dry trees found there, which make excellent firewood, and the bark of dry cedar is the best thing in the world for lighting a fire with. When the party got to the place there was

a very comfortable house set out, a blazing fire with a maple black log, ranging along for a length of twenty or thirty feet. Thus on the bushy hemlock would we lie down; roast pork before the fire on wooden prongs, each man roasting for himself; while plenty of tea was thrown into a large kettle of boiling water. The tin mug was turned out, the only tea-cup, which being filled, went round until all had drunk, then it was filled again, and so on; while each with his bush-knife cut toasted pork on a shive of bread, even using the thumb piece to prevent the thumb from being burned; a *tot* or two round of weak grog finished the feast, when some would fall asleep, others to sleep and snore; and after having lain an hour or so on one side, some one would cry *spoon!*—the order to turn to the other side—which was often an agreeable order, if a spike of tree root, or some such substance, stuck up beneath the ribs. Reclining this way like a parcel of spoons, our feet to the fire, we have found the hair of our heads often frozen to the place where we lay. For many days together did we lie in these wild places, before we could satisfy ourselves with a solution of the problem already represented. In Dow's great swamp, one of the most dismal places in the wilderness, did five Irishmen, two Englishmen, two Americans,

one French Canadian, and one Scotchman, hold their merry Christmas of 1826—or rather forgot to hold it at all.”

The following contains something both by land and water :—

“ One night we lost ourselves altogether in Cranberry Lake, on our route through the waters from the Ottawa to Lake Ontario. There were two canoes of us, and the poor fellows paddled away lustily; but it was of no use, the more we sailed, the farther astray we went, and could not find the outlet of the river Cataragou. Getting through a frightful marsh, partly overflowed by water, we entered with the canoes into an expanse of flooded woods, and one of the canoes stuck in the fork of a tree buried in the water. We went along side, and the crew having got into the other canoe, we succeeded in lifting it out of the fork. Dark night came on, and we landed on some sort of wild shore, about ten o'clock; clambered up the brow among the trees, and pulled the canoes and their cargoes after. We had parted with our provision-canoe on the morning before, and appointed to have met with it that night at a station called Brewer's Mills: thus we had nothing to eat but a small bit of cheese; and as for drink, there was nothing but a little drop of brandy in a bottle, and

this was not allowed to be touched. There we were no one knew where, in the heart of an endless wild, without food or any thing else whatever for the comfort of human life; but we minded it not. Although we had had a fagging day, no one was inclined to sleep. Could we have knocked up any thing in the shape of a dinner, we might then all have snoozed profoundly; but hunger kept us from the arms of Morpheus, and allowed us to ruminate on our forlorn situation. We hallooed out frequently as loud as we could, but no one heard us. We were sometimes answered by the owl, afar in the solitary woods, and the lake bird, called loon, also deigned to reply from the distant waters. At one time we heard, or thought we heard, the barking of a dog, which might have been so, but I thought it that of the wolf species.

“ Having a gun with us we succeeded in lighting a good fire, which is always a pleasant thing to look at, while the light reflected aloft on the woods, was beautiful. We frequently loaded the gun with powder to fire it off; and the sound reverberating through the forest and rocks was heard for a long time after. Thinking we had got to Loughborough Lake, which opens out of Cranberry Marsh, towards morning we started with the light of the moon, and after paddling away five or

six miles until we came to the head of a deep bay, swimming full of driftwood, we then put about and were glad to get back to the fire we had left on the unknown shore. We had supplied it well with fuel before we started, in hopes that we might use its light, like that of a Pharos, to guide us on our proper course ; but, alas ! we all now began to droop a little, for there was a probability that we might not find our way out of the lake, and of course therefore, must perish.

“ The sun arose ; we took to the canoes again, and seeing some wild ducks, we shot at them several times, but could not succeed in killing one of them. Having paddled away several miles, and taking our bearing by the sun, the compass being useless, I found we were returning as we had come the day before ; we therefore lay to, to strike the course. While doing so, we heard the report of a musket at a distance. We bore away to the place whence the sound proceeded, heard another shot let off, and even saw the smoke. It was an Indian shooting wild ducks. We all felt rejoiced to see him, divided the brandy, engaged him as guide, and he brought us out at the famous Round Tail mouth of the Cataragou ; from whence we proceeded to Brewer's Mills, found the provision-canoe, and made a hearty breakfast. So much for that time

when I had bewildered in the Cranberry Marsh; but it was by no means the first time."

These sketches of the process of "rummaging," lively, though they be, are in all probability not much overcharged, and they afford, perhaps a better general notion of the tangled forests of the country, than could be given by any more general or formal reasons. It must, however, be understood that the place of the country to which they apply, is in more than the usual state of vegetable luxuriance. The ground there is much stronger than in the higher part of the upper province, toward the western lakes; the climate is more humid, the surface is more diversified, so that the soil is washed more into the bottoms; and there are more small lakes, pools, and marshes. The best parts of the country, are, indeed, generally the worst to explore in the first instance. The deciduous trees, of whatever kind, have more brush-wood under them than the pines; so that of all the wooded places, and those which are not wooded are of very little value, the pine barrows are the more easily explored, and the least calculated to repay the labour.

The following account of seeking a settlement in the London district of Upper Canada, is from Mr. Talbot's book, formerly mentioned:—

“ On the 26th of October, my brother and I, with six men carrying provisions and felling-axes, took our departure from Westminster, and, having hired a guide, proceeded into London, to fix upon the most desirable lot, for the erection of a house. Twelve hundred acres were assigned my father for his demesne, if I may so call it. We had, therefore, a large tract of land to explore, before we could decide on the most eligible site. After spending the greater part of the day in approving and disapproving of particular lots ; we unanimously determined on the second lot, in the sixth concession, for the future asylum of our exiled family. When we had argued on this point, our next consideration, was, to procure shelter for the night ; for we were upwards of nine miles from the abode of civilized beings, and in the midst of desolate wilds ;

‘ Where beasts with men divided empire claim,
And the brown Indian marks with murderous aim.’

After walking about for some time in quest of a suitable place for making a fire, we discovered an old Indian wig-wam deserted by its inhabitants. In this bitter hut we resolved to continue during the night ; and having a tinder-box with all the other necessary materials, we speedily lighted an excellent fire. After we had taken supper on the

trunk of a tree, we lay down to rest, each rolling himself up in a blanket, and each in his turn supplying fuel to the fire. Thus did we pass the first night on our American estate. In the morning we were suddenly awakened by the howling of a pack of wolves, which were in full cry after an unfortunate deer. The howl of these ferocious animals so resembles the cry of fox-dogs, that, when I awoke and heard it, I fancied myself in the midst of the sporting woods of Erin. But the delusion was not of long continuance; for I speedily discovered that instead of being in my native land,

‘ Where the tints of the earth and the hues of the sky
In colour though varied, in beauty may vie,’

I was in the midst of a dreary and unvaried wilderness,

‘ Where couching wolves await their hapless prey,
And savage men more murderous still than they.’

To increase our consternation, or at least to direct it into another channel, the horses, which we brought with us to carry our bed-clothes and provisions, had broken from their tethers during the night, and consumed every ounce of our bread.

‘ Calm is my soul, nor apt to rise in arms,
Except when fast approaching danger warns;’

and yet I was on this occasion sufficiently provoked, to revenge our loss on the sides of the ill-natured brutes. We had brought our provender with the utmost difficulty a distance of nearly twelve miles, through woods and swamps: and then,—to be deprived of it in this way was too much for a man of my philosophy to bear without impatience! We should have been under the disagreeable necessity of dispensing with a breakfast, if we had not had the consideration to bring some potatoes with us, which happily for us, are not so well suited to the appetite of an American horse, as they are to the palate of an Irishman. For if that had been the case, we should have been compelled to stay our hunger till provisions could arrive from Westminster.

“ We continued in the woods from the 20th of October until the 1st of December. During this period, we laid the foundation of a house forty-six feet long, and twenty-one feet wide; one-half of which we finished first for the accommodation of the family, who removed into it on the 2nd of December,—five months and nineteen days after our embarkation for America. During the thirty-five days which we spent in the woods previous to the arrival of the family, our only lodging was the miserable wig-wam, which, like ancient Argus, had an hundred eyes or rather eye-holes, through which,

when lying awake at night, we could easily note every remarkable star that passed the meridian. Our only bed all that time was composed of a few withered leaves, while,

‘ A log contrived a double debt to pay,
By night a pillow and a seat by day.’

“ These are only slight specimens of the hardships which must be encountered by those who settle in a wilderness; and yet no small degree of fortitude is requisite to support the mind of him who is obliged to submit to them. It is a grievance of no inconsiderable magnitude to be compelled after a day of severe labour, to settle one’s weary limbs on the bare ground, in the cold month of November, and to be protected from ‘ the fierce north wind with his airy forces,’ and from the chilling frost, only by a miserable hut, with a fire sufficiently near it to counteract in some degree their benumbing effects. But the hope of independence is sufficient to sustain the mind under privations still greater than these; and he,—who can bring himself to think, when lying down to rest on the bare earth, that the day is not far distant when he may happily repose upon a more inviting couch, without one anxious thought respecting the future prospects of himself and his family,—regards these transient

sufferings with a kind of feeling nearly allied to actual pleasure. He sees the time fast approaching when the wilderness shall be to him 'a fruitful field, and the desert shall blossom as the rose;' when the productive soil shall gratefully yield an ample reward to his toils;—and when the hardships of his situation shall, by the blessing of heaven on his exertions, gradually disappear, and leave him in possession of health, plenty, and independence. While indulging in such joyful and ecstatic visions the wooden pillow of a new and industrious settler becomes softer than bolsters of down, and his solitary blanket feels more comfortable than sheets of Holland."

It is not to be expected, and indeed not to be wished, that every emigrant who goes to locate himself in the Canadian forests should be as sentimental as Mr. Talbot,—shorter speeches and longer tasks are more likely to ensure success in that country. The following is a more plain and practical account of the operation of settling, by Mr. Joseph Pickering, a plain English farmer, who finding his speculations in Buckinghamshire unfortunate at the time of the change from war to peace, took his departure for America in 1824.

"The method pursued," says Mr. Pickering, "on going into the woods (or bush, as it is termed)

to settle, is, to clear a proper site for a house, and cut logs for that purpose into proper lengths. This can be done in a week by one person. He then invites his neighbours to *raise it*, which they will do in a day. He has then to build a chimney; the bottom of stones, the top wattled with small lath-wood, and plastered with tempered clay; the hearth to be laid with stones, if bricks are not made in the neighbourhood. [They are made in all the old settled parts, and sold at about 23s. to 30s. per thousand.] Boarded floor,—the boards to be procured at a saw-mill, if one be near; if not, some split and hewed logs will answer the purpose. If the settler arrives on his lot in the spring, which is best, or early in the summer, he next clears off a piece of ground for potatoes and corn the first summer, by chopping the trees down about four feet from the ground; he then cuts them into fourteen feet lengths and throws their heads into *bush* heaps, hauls the logs into heaps, six or eight in each, with a yoke of oxen, and a hand or two to help; he then burns them as well as the bush heaps, and preserves the ashes, if a potashery be in the neighbourhood. Observe, when felling the trees, to bring them down alongside each other as much as possible, and their heads when you make the bush heaps; and be careful they do not fall on yourself,

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for should one lodge on another that is standing, it is dangerous getting it down, to one unacquainted with the business ; besides, the boughs breaking, are often propelled back with great force. There are too often people killed by trees in new settlements, where several are at work together, and all new beginners. Plant the corn and potatoes without ploughing. Now clear more land in the same way for wheat, to be sown in the fall ; and afterwards some for oats, next spring, for the cattle—each to be only harrowed in without ploughing. Settlers generally sow Timothy grass among wheat or oats, but red clover is far preferable by itself or mixed with the former, or, (could it be procured) good rye or vernal grass. White or Dutch clover generally springs up in a year or two, spontaneously on some land ; yet perhaps it would be better to sow it if it could be procured, as it would come immediately and be more uniform. A good chopper will chop an acre or more of moderately heavy timber in a week ; and in making a *bee* for logging, four or five acres can be drawn into heaps in a day, by giving about 4s. or 5s. worth of whiskey, and something to eat ; but of course you must assist at the *bees* of others if required. There are generally plenty of people willing to go to *bees*, for the sake of the company and the whiskey, and frolic at

night. They work briskly at those *bees*, and in good humour, striving against each other.

“To a person who is about to settle on entire woodland, I would recommend the following system : after well clearing a few acres in the immediate vicinity in which the house is intended to be built, and all wood, that the trees left standing may be at a sufficient distance to be out of danger of falling on it, and a small piece fenced off for cattle to lie in at night out of the same danger, in windy weather ; then cut down fourteen or fifteen acres of the small and decayed trees and rubbish, burn them, and girdle the remainder of the trees ; sow this ground with wheat early in the fall, or part with oats in the spring, and with them clover and a small quantity of grass seeds mixed ; the clover grass to be mowed the first year or two, and grazed afterwards. Do the same next year with some more, for six or seven years in succession, and likewise clear a small piece quite off, for corn and potatoes, cabbages, &c. in front of the house, and next to the road or street. In about six or seven years the roots of the trees will be rotten, and some of the girdled ones fallen ; then begin and chop down ten or fifteen acres of these girdled trees yearly in a dry time, felling them across each other

to break them in pieces; put fire into them in various parts of the field, and it will burn most of them up. What little may be left unconsumed must be collected into heaps and burnt. It is necessary to keep a watch over the fences while this is going on, that they do not take fire. After this you may plough and plant what you please, as generally the ground will be in pretty good condition.

“ This system is pursued in some plains, and ought to be more generally adopted, particularly the first few years of entering upon a wild farm, on account of the little trouble at a time there is so much else to do. But some object, and say there is too much danger that the cattle will be killed by the falling of the girdled trees, and the fences also broken. To which I answer, cattle need not be near them only a little in the fall of the first two years, as the clover and grass will be mown for hay; and they may be put there only in still weather afterwards, and in the day time; and as to the fences, after cutting out the decayed standing trees, and a few of those that stand near, and have an inclination towards them, there will be but few, if any, rails broken by their falling; and if there should be a few, they can soon be replaced, as one

man will cut and split five or six rods in a day, and put it up, if the timber be good. In choosing a farm or lot of wild land, or indeed any land in this country, it should always be first ascertained if there be plenty of good rail timber growing thereon, such as oak, hickory, ash, cedar, chestnut, pine, butternut, cherry, and black walnut; but good trees of the two latter kind I would never use for that purpose, as they now are useful, and will be in a few years very valuable for furniture, &c. as there are, comparatively speaking, but few in the country, and none such below the head of Lake Ontario of walnut. Nor would I recommend wasting fine straight white oak that is growing near any water communication, as it is valuable for staves, &c. And the sugar maple-tree, if growing in what is called bushes, that is, a number together, should never be wantonly destroyed, as it is a useful and valuable appendage to a farm. If the above system be adopted, there will be very little ploughing the first few years, and only one yoke of oxen required. But should it be thought prudent to clear all the timber off the land at once, it should always, as much as possible, be sown the first or second year with clover, or clover and grass seeds, to lay until the stumps are rotten, before being

ploughed, when fire should be put into each stump, and the greater part will burn up. Near towns and villages almost all kinds of wood is valuable as cord wood for fuel, and when drawn in, sold at 6*s.* to 9*s.* or 10*s.* per cord. Good pine, growing near a lake, or river communication with one, is becoming valuable."

The "girdling" of trees mentioned in this passage, consists in notching them round with an axe, and leaving them to decay, where that can be easily done; damming up the places where they grow, till the trees stand three or four feet in the water, produces the same effect, and also adds much to the richness of the land, which may be dried afterwards by breaking down the dams, and forming drains, if necessary. Where the wood is cut and burnt, the ashes are worth 5*d.* or 6*d.* a bushel for the potash they contain.

The following document may be useful as a sort of guide to the humbler class of settlers:—

"Estimate for locating a family in the colonies of North America, of a pauper emigrant from Ireland; each family to consist of man, wife, and three children; say three and a-half full rations per day, for 450 days.

Four lbs. flour, Indian meal, and oat-meal, with potatoes in lieu occasionally	£.	s.	d.
1 lb. molasses, or maple-sugar	0	0	6½
1 lb. pork	0	0	4
2 herrings, or other fish	0	0	2
Per day	0	1	1½
For 450 days is	25	6	3
One pair blankets	0	6	0
Two hoes	0	2	10
Two axes	0	16	0
One auger, and one iron wedge	0	3	0
Proportion of grindstone	0	5	0
Medical attendance	0	10	0
Seed, grain, and potatoes	1	0	0
Log-house	2	10	0
Transport to location	6	0	0
A young pig	0	6	6
Proportion, expense of building store-house, clerks, &c &c.	2	0	0
Incidents	0	14	5
	£40	0	0

“ In the foregoing estimate, I presume that the emigrant provides himself with a spade, a kettle,

and at least one pair of blankets; in fact he will have to provide himself with necessaries of this sort for the voyage out.

" I maintain, taking in the average of New Brunswick, Lower Canada, &c. that 6*l.* is fully adequate to cover any expense of transport to location, unless you select situations of the most difficult access and distance; and with previous arrangements, and ample time given for contracts, I have not the shadow of a doubt but provisions may be furnished at prices stated, taking present prices as a data, and I presume the emigrant will feel himself *more at home* with his herring and potato, oatmeal, &c. and a little bit of pork, than altogether fed on salt pork and flour, the latter of which the Irish peasantry *are totally ignorant of using with management.*

" No cow is introduced, as I have before stated, as it is considered for the first twelve months the emigrants will not possess means for feeding one; and if he is industrious he will easily earn by his labour the price of a young two-year old heifer in calf, as soon as he can obtain fodder for her keeping.

(Signed)

" A. C. BUCHANAN."

Prices of course fluctuate very much, according

to the greater or smaller influx of strangers; but some idea may be formed from the following :—

List of Prices of Articles in common use, at York, Upper Canada. (W. Cattermole, on the spot in 1830).

	s.	d.	s.	d.
A salmon, from 6lb. to 10lb. . .	3	9	to	5 0
Ditto, when abundant . . .	1	3	—	2 6
White fish, from 2lb. to 4lb. per doz. . .	5	0		
Bread, 4lb.	0	6	—	0 7½
A Goose	1	6	—	2 6
A Turkey	2	3	—	3 9
Cheese, Canadian, per lb. . .	0	3	—	0 4
Ditto, English, ditto . . .	1	10½	—	2 0
Sugar, West India	0	6	—	0 7
Ditto, maple	0	3½	—	0 4
Ditto, lump	0	3	—	0 10
Soap, generally made, but at stores	0	2½	—	0 3½
Candles, moulds	0	7½		
Vinegar, English, per gallon . .	4	0		
Ditto, Canadian, ordinary, from cyder	1	0	—	1 3
Tobacco, per lb.	0	7½	—	0 9
Madeira wines, good, per gallon .	12	0	—	13 6
Port, inferior	10	0	—	12 6

	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Champagne, per dozen, good .	45	0	to	60	0
Claret	35	0	—	40	0
Ditto, inferior	25	0	—	30	0
Best Cognac brandy	7	6	—	10	0
Common ditto	4	4	—	6	3
Rum	5	0			
Hollands gin	6	3	—	7	6
Scotch whiskey	0	0	—	14	0
Irish, ditto					
Common Canadian, ditto	1	4	—	1	6
London Porter per dozen	18	0	—	20	0
The country ale, bad	1	0	—	1	3
Young hyson tea, per lb.	5	0	—	7	6
Black, little used	3	0	—	4	0
Coffee	0	7½	—	1	0

A good horse, 10*l.* to 25*l.*

A Cow, 3*l.* to 5*l.*

Sheep, I have seen all prices, from 10*s.* to 50*s.*, the latter was a prize, and of the Leicestershire breed, introduced by Mr. P. Robinson. Bricks, 1*l.* to 1*l.* 5*s.* per 1000 at the kiln, people who build, usually burn them, to save carriage. Fowls and vegetables very irregular, either dear, or so cheap that even a Dutchman will not take the trouble to bring them to market; onions, 5*s.* to 6*s.* 3*d.* per bushel.

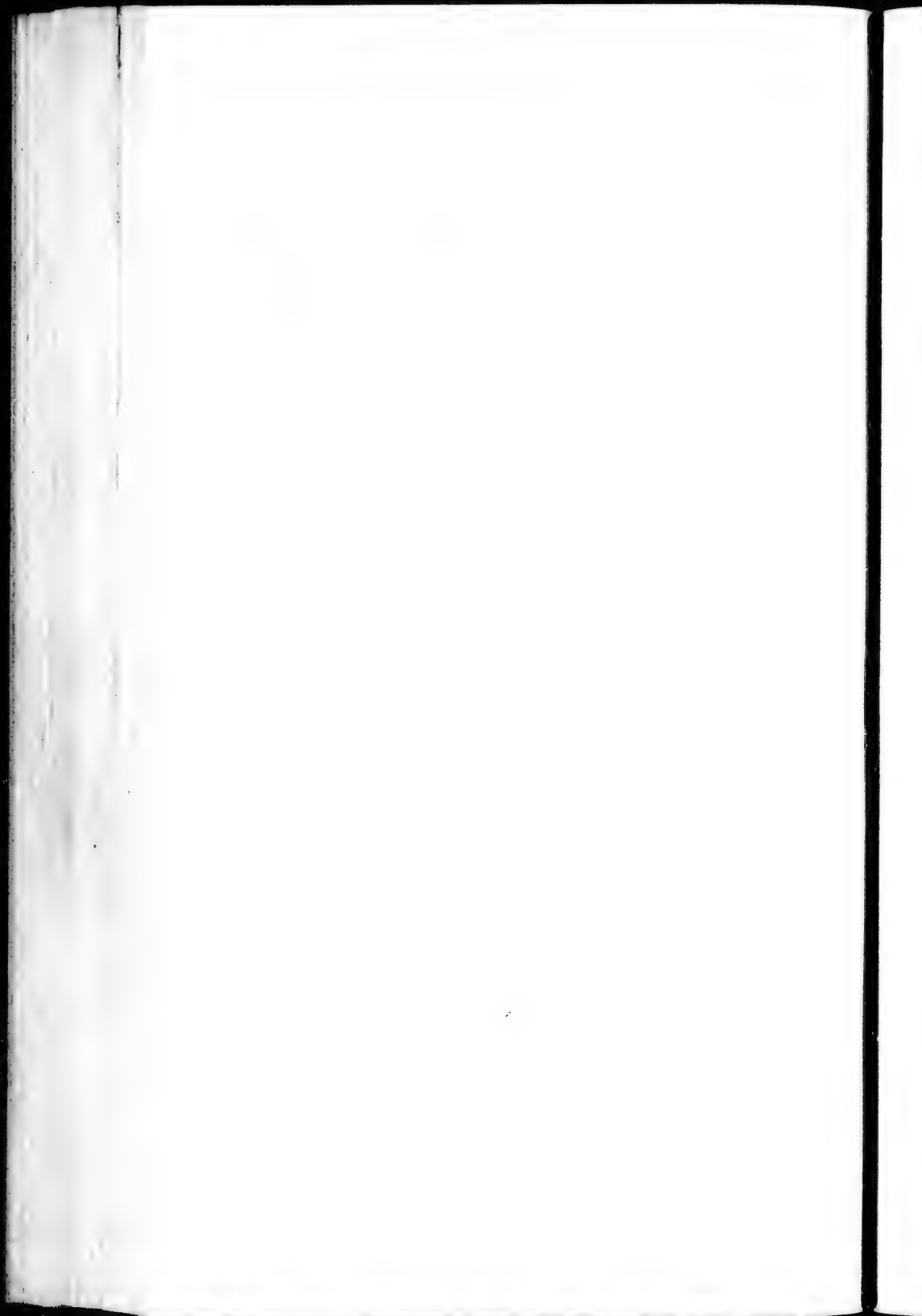
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— 7	6
— 4	0
— 1	0

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Many other directions might be given, and probably much more applicable to particular cases, than those which are contained in the preceding pages; but in a short abstract, only those which are of the most general character can be stated; and no instruction from others, can supply the place of that *self-observation*, which is the grand security for success.

NOTE.—It may be necessary to state, that the present mode of letting lands in Canada is that mentioned at page 222, and not that stated by Mr. Talbot; though what he says *may once* have been the case.



A P P E N D I X.

No. 1.

INFORMATION, PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS
FOR EMIGRATION, RESPECTING THE BRITISH COLONIES IN
NORTH AMERICA.

Colonial Office, Feb. 9, 1832.

THE object of the present notice is to afford such information as is likely to be useful to persons who desire either to emigrate, or to assist others to emigrate, to the British possessions in North America.

In the first place, it seems desirable to define the nature of the assistance to be expected from Government by persons proceeding to these Colonies. No pecuniary aid will be allowed by Government to emigrants to the North American Colonies; nor after their arrival will they receive grants of land, or gift of tools, or a supply of provisions. Hopes of all these things have been sometimes held out to emigrants by speculators in this country, desirous of making a profit by their conveyance to North America, and willing for that purpose to delude them with unfounded expectations, regardless of their subsequent disappointment. But the wish of Government is to furnish those who emigrate with a

real knowledge of the circumstances they will find in the countries to which they are going.

No assistance of the extraordinary extent above described is allowed, because, in Colonies, where those who desire to work cannot fail to do well for themselves, none such is needed. Land, indeed, used formerly to be granted gratuitously; but when it was taken by poor people, they found that they had not the means of living during the interval necessary to raise their crops, and farther, that they knew not enough of the manner of farming in the Colonies to make any progress. After all, therefore, they were obliged to work for wages, until they could make a few savings, and could learn a little of the way of farming in Canada. But now, land is not disposed of except by sale. The produce of the sales, although the price is very moderate, is likely to become a considerable fund which can be turned to the benefit of the Colonies, and therefore of the emigrants; while yet no hardship is inflicted on the poor emigrant, who will work for wages just as he did before, and may after a while acquire land, if land be his object, by the savings which the high wages in these Colonies enable him speedily to make.

These are the reasons why Government does not think it necessary to give away land in a country, where, by the lowness of its price, the plentifulness of work, and the high rates of wages, an industrious man can earn enough in a few seasons to become a freeholder by means of his own acquisitions.

The land which is for sale will be open to public competition, and of course, therefore, its price must depend upon

the offers that may be made; but it will generally not be sold for less than from 4*s.* to 5*s.* per acre; and in situations where roads have been made, or the ground has been partially cleared, the common prices lately have been 7*s.* 6*d.*, 10*s.*, and 15*s.* Farther particulars will be best learned upon the spot, where every endeavour will be made to meet the different circumstances and views of different purchasers.

Although Government will not make any gifts at the public expense to emigrants to North America, agents will be maintained at the principal Colonial ports, whose duty it will be, without fee or reward from private individuals, to protect emigrants against imposition upon their first landing, to acquaint them with the demand for labour in different districts, to point out the most advantageous routes, and to furnish them generally with all useful advice upon the objects which they have had in view in emigrating. And when a private engagement cannot be immediately obtained, employment will be afforded on some of the public works in progress in the Colonies. Persons newly arrived should not omit to consult the Government agent for emigrants, and as much as possible should avoid detention in the ports, where they are exposed to all kinds of impositions, and of pretences for keeping them at taverns till any money they may possess has been expended.—For the same purpose of guarding against the frauds practised on new comers, and of preventing an improvident expenditure at the first moment of arrival, it seems very desirable that individuals who may wish to furnish emigrants with money for their use in the Colony should have the means of making the money payable there, instead of giving it into the hands of the emigrants in this

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country. The Commissioners for emigration are engaged in effecting general arrangements for this purpose, and due notice will be given to the public when they shall be completed. Agents for emigration have been appointed at St. John's, St. Andrew's, and Miramichi in New Brunswick, and at Quebec and York in Canada. On this whole subject of the manner of proceeding upon landing, it may be observed in conclusion, that no effort will be spared to exempt emigrants from any necessity for delay at the place of disembarkation, and from uncertainty, as to the opportunities of at once turning their labour to account.

After this explanation of the extent of the aid to be expected from Government, the following statements are subjoined of the ordinary charges for passage to the North American Colonies, as well as of the usual rates of wages and usual prices in them, in order that every individual may have the means of judging for himself of the inducements to emigrate to these parts of the British dominions.

Passage.

Passages to Quebec or New Brunswick may either be engaged inclusive of provisions, or exclusive of provisions, in which case the ship owner finds nothing but water, fuel, and bed places, without bedding. Children under fourteen years of age are charged one-half, and under seven years of age one-third of the full price; and for children under twelve months of age no charge is made. Upon these conditions the price of passage from London, or from places on the east coast of Great Britain, has generally been 6*l.* with provisions, or 3*l.* without. From Liverpool, Greenock, and

the principal ports of Ireland, as the chances of delay are fewer, the charge is somewhat lower; this year it will probably be from 2*l.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* without provisions, or from 4*l.* to 5*l.* including provisions. It is possible that in March and April passages may be obtained from Dublin for 35*s.*, or even 30*s.*; but the prices always grow higher as the season advances. In ships sailing from Scotland or Ireland, it has mostly been the custom for passengers to find their own provisions; but this practice has not been so general in London, and some ship owners, sensible of the dangerous mistakes which may be made in this matter through ignorance, are very averse to receive passengers who will not agree to be victualled by the ship. Those who do resolve to supply their own provisions, should at least be careful not to lay in an insufficient stock; fifty days is the shortest period for which it is safe to provide, and from London the passage is sometimes prolonged to seventy-five days.

The best months for leaving England are certainly March and April; the later emigrants do not find employment so abundant, and have less time in the Colony before the commencement of winter.

Various frauds are attempted upon emigrants which can only be effectually defeated by the good sense of the parties against whom they are contrived. Sometimes agents take payment from the emigrant for his passage, and then recommend him to some tavern, where he is detained from day to day, under false pretences for delay, until before the departure of the ship the whole of his money is extracted from him. This of course cannot happen with agents connected with respectable houses; but the best security is to name in

the bargain for passage a particular day, after which, whether or not the ship sails, the passenger is to be received on board and victualled by the owners. In this manner the emigrant cannot be intentionally brought to the place of embarkation too soon, and be compelled to spend his money at public houses, by false accounts of the time of sailing; for from the very day of his arrival at the port, being the day previously agreed upon, the ship becomes his home.

The conveyance of passengers to the British possessions in North America is regulated by an Act of Parliament (9 Geo. IV. c. 21,) of which the following are the principal provisions:—ships are not allowed to carry passengers to these colonies unless they be of the height of five feet and a-half between decks; and they must not carry more than three passengers for every four tons of the registered burden; there must be on board, at least, fifty gallons of pure water, and fifty pounds of bread, biscuit, oatmeal, or bread-stuff, for each passenger. When the ship carries the full number of passengers allowed by law, no part of the cargo, and no stores or provisions, may be carried between decks; but if there be less than the complete number of passengers, goods may be stowed between decks in a proportion not exceeding three cubical feet for each passenger wanting of the highest number. Masters of vessels who land passengers, unless with their own consent, at a place different from that originally agreed upon, are subject to a penalty of 20*l.* recoverable by summary process before two Justices of the Peace in any of the North American Colonies.

The enforcement of this law rests chiefly with the officers of his Majesty's Customs; and persons having complaints

to make of its infraction, should address themselves to the nearest Custom-house.

Besides the sea voyage from England, persons proceeding to Canada should be provided with the means of paying for the journey which they may have to make after their arrival at Quebec. The cost of this journey must, of course, depend upon the situation of the place where the individual may find employment, or where he may have previously formed a wish to settle; but to all it will, probably, be useful to possess the following report of the prices of conveyance, during the last season, on the route from Quebec to York, the capital of Upper Canada. From Quebec to Montreal, (180 miles,) by steam-boat, the charge for an adult was 6s. 6d.; from Montreal to Prescott, (120 miles,) by boats or barges, 7s.; from Prescott to York, (250 miles,) by steam-boat, 7s. The journey, performed in this manner, usually occupies ten or twelve days; adding, therefore, 11s. for provisions, the total cost from Quebec to York (a distance of 550 miles) may be stated, according to the charges of last year, at 1*l.* 11s. 6d. Persons who are possessed of sufficient means prefer to travel by land that part of the route where the river St. Lawrence is not navigable by steam-boats, and the journey is then usually performed in six days, at a cost of 6*l.* It must be observed, that the prices of conveyance are necessarily fluctuating, and that the foregoing account is only presented as sufficiently accurate for purposes of information in this country, leaving it to the Government Agent at Quebec to supply emigrants with more exact particulars, according to the circumstances of the time at which they may arrive.



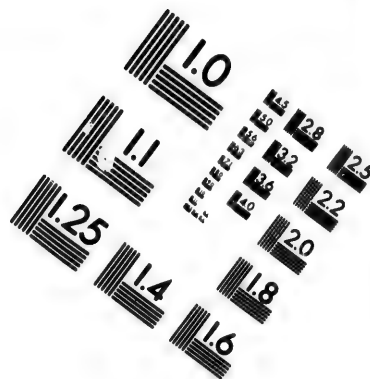
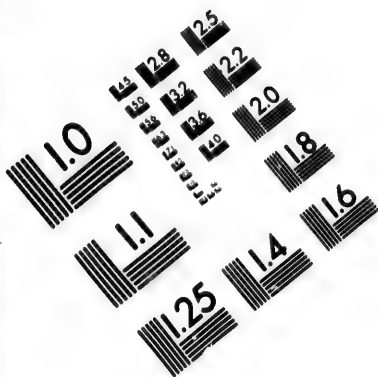
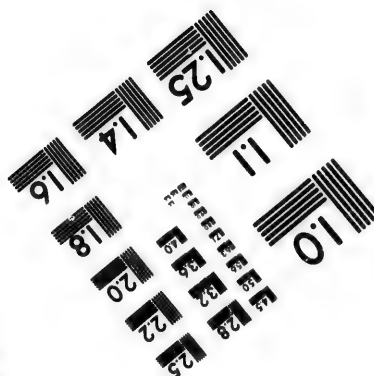
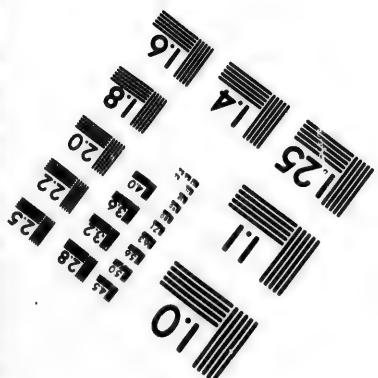
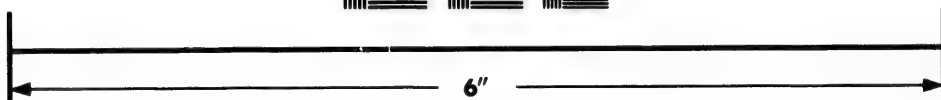
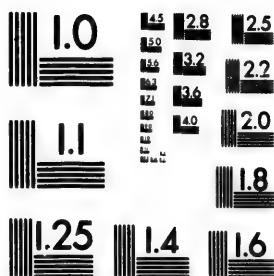


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Rates of Wages and Market Prices.

The colonies in North America, to which emigrants can with advantage proceed, are Lower Canada, Upper Canada, and New Brunswick. From the reports received from the other British Colonies in North America, namely, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, it appears that they do not contain the means either of affording employment at wages to a considerable number of emigrants, or of settling them upon land.

Lower Canada.

From Lower Canada the Commissioners for emigration have not received the official reports which were required from the North American Colonies, for the purpose of compiling the present statement. They believe, however, that the following account of the prices of grain and of wages may be relied upon for its general correctness :—

	s.	d.
Wheat, per bushel	4	6
Rye, ditto	3	0
Maize, ditto	2	6
Oats, ditto	1	3
Wages of labourers	2	6 per day.
Ship-builders, carpenters, joiners, } coopers, masons, and tailors . }	5	0 ditto.

Upper Canada.

The following table exhibits the lowest and the highest price which the several articles therein-named bore, during the year 1831, in each of the principal districts of Upper Canada :—

Prices.

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	Eastern Division.		Johnstown ditto.		Bathurst ditto.		Newcastle ditto.		Home ditto.		Gore ditto.		Niagara ditto.		London ditto (Huron tract)	
	Lowest Price in 1831.	Highest Ditto.	Lowest	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest	Highest.	Lowest	Highest.	Low- est.	High- est.
Wheat, per bush.	£ s. d. 0 5 0	£ s. d. 0 5 6	£ s. d. 0 5 3	£ s. d. 0 6 9	£ s. d. 0 5 0	£ s. d. 0 6 0	£ s. d. 0 5 0	£ s. d. 0 6 3	£ s. d. 0 3 9	£ s. d. 0 5 3	£ s. d. 0 4 1½	£ s. d. 0 6 3	£ s. d. 0 3 9	£ s. d. 0 5 0	£ s. d. 0 4 0	£ s. d. 0 5 0
Maize, ditto . . .	0 2 6	0 3 0	0 1 9	0 2 3	0 2 6	0 3 0	0 2 0	0 3 0	0 2 0	0 2 9	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 3 9	0 3 9
Oats, ditto . . .	0 1 3	0 1 8	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 2 0	0 1 3	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 1 0½	0 1 3	0 1 0½	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 3	0 1 3
Barley, ditto . .	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 1 9	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 3 6	0 2 6	0 3 1	0 2 3	0 3 9	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 3 9	0 3 9
Potatoes, per cwt.	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 3	0 1 9	0 1 3	0 1 9	0 2 0	0 3 0	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 3	0 2 6	0 1 0½	0 2 6
Butter (fresh), } per lb. }	0 7½	0 9	0 6 0	0 9	0 6 0	0 8	0 7½	0 9	0 7½	0 1 0	0 7½	0 0	0 7½	0 7½	0 7½	0 1 0
Butter (salt), } per lb. }	0 7½	0 7½	0 7½	0 10	0 7½	0 7½	0 7½	0 9	0 9	0 10	0 6 0	0 7½	0 6½	0 7½	0 7½	0 1 0
Cheese, per lb.	0 6	0 6	0 4	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 5	0 7½	0 6	0 6	0 5	0 7½	0 4	0 6	0 7½	0 7½
Eggs, per dozen	0 5	0 9	0 16	0 10	0 4	0 8	0 6	0 7½	0 7½	0 10½	0 6	0 7½	0 6	0 6	0 7½	0 7½
Ducks, per pair	0 18	0 18	0 16	0 20	0 26	0 30	0 20	0 26	0 1 3	0 1 10½	0 26	0 2 6	0 1 3	0 3 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
Fowls, ditto . .	0 14	0 16	0 10	0 13	0 18	0 23	0 13	0 13	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 3	0 1 3
Geese, ditto . .	0 40	0 50	0 24	0 26	0 40	0 40	0 26	0 39	0 3 3	0 5 0	0 39	0 3 9	0 39	0 3 9	0 2 6	0 2 6
Turkeys, ditto .	0 50	0 60	0 36	0 40	0 40	0 40	0 33	0 39	0 5 0	0 10	0 50	0 50	0 50	0 7 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
Hay, per ton . .	1 15 0	2 5 0	1 10 0	2 10 0	2 0 2	10 0	1 10 0	3 10 0	1 10 0	2 10 0	2 0 2	0 0	1 15 0	2 10 0	—	—
Straw, per load	0 16 8	0 16 8	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 5 0	0 5 0	—	—
Bread, per 4 lb. }	0 9	0 10	0 6 0	0 8	0 10	0 10	0 7½	0 7½	0 4½	0 7	0 7½	0 7½	0 7	0 8	—	—
loaf . . . }																
MEAT, per lb.																
Beef . . .	0 2½	0 3½	0 2 0	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 2½	0 3	0 3	0 5	0 3	0 3	0 2	0 3	0 3	0 3
Mutton . . .	0 3	0 4	0 2½	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 2½	0 3	0 5	0 7½	0 3	0 3	0 2	0 3	0 3	0 3
Pork . . .	0 4	0 5	0 4	0 6	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 4	0 3	0 6	0 2	0 2	0 3	0 3	0 7½	0 7½
Veal . . .	0 3	0 3	0 2½	0 3	0 4	0 4	0 3	0 3½	0 3	0 5	0 3	0 3	0 2½	0 3	0 4½	0 4½
FLOUR, per 100 lbs.																
Fine . . .	0 15 0	0 17 6	0 15 0	0 17 6	0 12 6	0 16 0	0 12 6	0 17 6	0 12 6	0 15 0	0 14 6	0 15 0	0 12 6	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0
Seconds . . .	0 12 6	0 12 6	0 12 6	0 15 0	0 10 6	0 12 6	0 10 0	0 15 0	0 11 3	0 12 6	0 12 0	0 12 6	0 12 6	0 15 0	—	—

From a comparison of all the documents before the Commissioners for Emigration, it appears that the yearly wages of labourers in Upper Canada, hired by the year, are from 27*l.* to 30*l.*; that their monthly wages, in different situations and at different seasons, range from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per month; and that daily wages range from 2*s.* to 3*s.* 9*d.* In all these rates of wages, board and lodging are found by the employer. Without board, daily wages vary from 3*s.* 6*d.* out of harvest to 5*s.* during harvest; 6*s.* 3*d.* besides provisions, is sometimes given to harvest-men. The wages of mechanics may be stated universally at from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day.

New Brunswick.

The following is a list of prices compiled from documents sent in from various parts of New Brunswick :—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Wheat . . . per bushel	0	5	0 to	0	10	0
Maize . . . ditto	0	4	6	0	5	0
Oats . . . ditto	0	1	6	0	2	0
Barley . . . ditto	0	4	0	0	5	0
Potatoes . . . per cwt.	0	1	3	0	3	6
Butter (fresh) . . per lb.	0	0	9	0	1	0
Ditto (salt) . . ditto	0	0	8	0	0	10
Cheese . . . ditto	0	0	4	0	0	7
Eggs . . . per dozen	0	0	7½	0	1	0
Ducks . . . per pair	0	2	0	0	3	6
Fowls . . . ditto	0	1	6	0	2	6
Geese . . . ditto	0	3	0	0	5	0
Turkeys . . . ditto	0	7	6	0	10	0

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nswick :—

£	s.	d.
to 0	10	0
0	5	0
0	2	0
0	5	0
0	3	6
0	1	0
0	0	10
0	0	7
0	1	0
0	3	6
0	2	6
0	5	0
0	10	0

		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Hay	per ton	1	10	0	2	10	0
Straw	ditto	1	0	0	1	5	0
Bread	per 4 <i>lb.</i> loaf	0	0	10	0	1	0
Beef	per stone	0	3	3	0	4	0
Mutton	ditto	0	2	4	0	4	0
Pork	ditto	0	2	0½	0	4	0
Veal	ditto	0	2	4	0	4	8
Flour	per 100 <i>lbs.</i>	0	16	0	0	17	6
Salt Pork	per barrel	4	15	0	5	5	0
Ditto Beef	ditto	3	0	0	3	10	0
Malt	per bushel	0	6	2	0	6	4
Rye flour	per barrel	1	2	6	—	—	—
Indian ditto	ditto	1	2	6	—	—	—
Oatmeal	per cwt.	0	16	0	0	18	0
Salt Cod	per 112 <i>lbs.</i>	0	10	0	0	12	0
Ditto Mackarel	per barrel	0	17	0	1	0	0
Ditto Alewives	ditto	0	10	0	0	12	0

Coals are sold at 30*s.* per chaldron. House-rent is from 5*l.* to 6*l.* per annum, for families occupying one room; and for families occupying two rooms, from 6*l.* to 10*l.* Common labourers receive from 3*s.* to 4*s.* a-day, finding their own subsistence; but, when employed at the ports in loading vessels, their subsistence is found for them. Mechanics receive from 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day, and superior workmen from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.*

Upon the foregoing statements it must be observed, that emigrants, especially such of them as are agricultural labourers, should not expect the highest wages named until they

have become accustomed to the work of the colony. The mechanics most in demand are those connected with the business of house-building. Shoemakers, and tailors, and ship-builders also find abundant employment.

NOTE.—Emigrants taking shipping at London may obtain drafts on the Canada Bank, upon paying money at the Banking Office of SMITH, PAYNE, and SMITHS, Mansion-house-street, City.

No. 2.

CANADA COMPANY'S STATEMENT.

1st. *Detached Lots, or Separate Farms, from 50 to 200 acres each, scattered through the different townships in the province.*—These lots are, in many instances, interspersed in the old settlements, and have the advantage of established roads in their immediate vicinity.

Considerable sales have been effected by the Company, at prices varying from 7s. 6d. to 15s. an acre, one-fifth payable down, and the remainder by annual instalments in five years, with interest.

2nd. *Blocks of Land, containing from 1000 to 40,000 acres each, situated in the western districts of the province.*

—A town, called Guelph, has been built, in a central situation, on one of the most considerable of these Blocks, in the Gore District, and roads have been opened, at the expense of the Company, to the various townships around ; and one main road is now in operation from Guelph to Dundas, twenty-four miles, which latter place will become the dépôt

for all grain raised in the back townships, fetching, with the mere difference of carriage, as high a price there and at Flamborough, which is twenty miles distant from Guelph, as at York, where it is shipped for the Montreal market. Upwards of 200 houses are now built; a first-rate stone grist-mill will be in operation in January, 1831; there are several taverns, where board and lodging may be procured on moderate terms, and tradesmen of most descriptions are among its inhabitants, which amount to about 800. Building lots, of a quarter of an acre, sell at 40 dollars; farms in the vicinity fetch from 15*s.* to 40*s.* per acre, which, a few years ago, were sold at 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* and 15*s.* the highest.

Settlers with capital, who prefer establishing themselves on land on which partial clearings have been made, and log-houses erected, will generally find lots with such improvements for sale. This arises from persons going originally in very destitute circumstances, or rather dependant on the Company's assistance, who, having succeeded on their lots, are willing to sell their land, with a reasonable profit, to new comers, at from four to six dollars, with the improvements on the same, houses, barns, &c. These individuals generally remove farther westward, having acquired sufficient knowledge of the country, and purchase on the Huron Tract, which is equal in quality, at from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* per acre.

Persons possessing small capitals will find the Upper Province the most desirable part of the colony to fix themselves in, especially if they have large families. One hundred pounds, on arriving at the spot, will enable an indus-

trious person to support his family, because, in purchasing land, one-fifth only is required to be paid down, and the remainder, with the advantage of having roads and a good market within twenty-four miles, can be made off the farm in time to meet the instalments, and in no one instance has the Company, since its formation, had occasion to resort to compulsion for any arrears.

A large block of land in the township of Wilmot has been surveyed, laid out into farms, and a road cut through it from Guelph, leading to the Huron Tract, and again through that to Goderich, on Lake Huron.

A considerable stream, offering great advantages for mill-seats and hydraulic purposes, flows through part of this Block.

3rd. The Huron Territory, a tract of 1,100,000 acres, in the shape of a triangle, its base being about sixty miles in length, resting on Lake Huron, and having a direct navigable communication, through Lakes Erie and Ontario, to the Atlantic.—The Company have laid out a town in this district, called Goderich, at the confluence of the River Maitland with Lake Huron, which promises, from its local advantages, to become one of the most important and flourishing settlements in the province.

A considerable number of enterprising colonists, and among them many possessed of capital, have this season sold their old cultivated farms on Yonge Street, near York, and proceeded to Goderich, where there is a grist-mill, saw-mill, brick-kiln, and tavern, a considerable quantity of land has recently been taken up by them: with this party are several old American settlers, who have been fifteen and

twenty years in the province, which is a strong proof of the goodness both of soil and situation, they being, from experience, the best judges. The harbour, the only one on the Canadian side of the Lake, is capable of containing vessels of the burden of 200 tons; and it has been established as a Port of Entry, which will ensure to the inhabitants a great share of the trade with the upper countries, and their opposite neighbours in the new settlements in the United States.

The scenery on the River Maitland has been described as more like English than any other in America. There is abundance of brick-earth and potters' clay in every direction round the town.

The establishments at Goderich have been formed by the Company, principally to afford facilities, encouragement, and protection to settlers, who may be disposed to purchase and improve the adjoining lands.

Roads are in progress, as marked out in the map, from Goderich to the town of London, where they will join the Talbot road, and connect the Huron tract with Port Talbot and the various settlements and towns on Lake Erie and the Niagara frontier. Cattle and provisions can be obtained in abundance by this route, or the still more easy water-communication between Goderich and the old well-cultivated settlements of Sandwich, Amherstburg, and Detroit.

For the making of roads, and towards the improvement of water-communications, the building of churches, school-houses, bridges, wharfs, and other works, for the benefit and accommodation of the public, the Company have engaged to expend a sum of 48,000*l.* in the Huron tract; all such

works and improvements to be approved of and sanctioned by the local authorities.

With respect to the soil in the Huron tract, it is only necessary to quote the words of the Surveyor who has been employed to lay out the line of road to connect Goderich with the Talbot Settlements through the heart of the tract; viz.—“The quality of the soil through the whole thirty-three miles is such, that I have not seen its equal in the province; the soil is generally composed of a deep, rich, black loam, and thinly timbered. For the purpose of the intended road there is not one mile in the whole distance otherwise than favourable; and there are four permanent streams, branches of main rivers.” And with respect to the important consideration of climate, reference may be made to the sub-joined Report.—*See Canada Company's Statement.*

The Company have made sales of lots of 100 and 200 acres to individual settlers, on the condition of actual settlement. The value of lots, of course, varies according to local circumstances and advantages, and will increase with the settlement and consequent progressive value of property in the country.

The Commissioners in Upper Canada have directions to treat with associations of settlers for larger quantities, or even whole blocks of land, if any should prefer this course; and there will be every disposition to encourage small capitalists, and enterprising and industrious emigrants, by the most extended credit, on such conditions as may be only consistent with the final security of the Company.

To the agricultural class of emigrants every possible encouragement is given : such as are simply desirous to obtain work, if they proceed direct to York, are more sure to obtain it than in the Lower Province, where the rate of wages is much lower. The general prices to a farming labourer, in the neighbourhood of York, Guelph, and Goderich, varies from eight to twelve dollars per month, and his board. Some thousands landed last season at York, and all found employment. It is also a matter of much encouragement to the poor class of emigrants to know, that the legislature, aided by the assistance of some gentlemen in and about York, have this year erected a commodious brick building in York, for the temporary use of such emigrants as may need it, and to prevent the inconvenience which has happened from their not being able to find accommodation at inns on their first arrival. It will be the duty of the Superintendent of that establishment to seek out employ, and direct those who wish it to persons in the country who require servants. This last season, much grain, within fifteen and twenty miles of York, was wasted for want of hands in the harvest.

Passages to Quebec may be obtained on the most reasonable terms, from any of the great shipping ports in Great Britain and Ireland ; it is expedient that the emigrant should embark early in the season, that he may have the summer before him, and leisure to settle his family comfortably before the winter sets in.

The expense of conveying a family from a port in the United Kingdom to York, Upper Canada, is as follows :—
3*l*. for the passage of an adult from England to Quebec ;
children 1*l*. 10*s*. ; provisions about as much more, and from

Ireland and Scotland considerably less. From thence to York the expense is about 2*l.* for an adult, and 1*l.* for children, without provisions.

The Company's agents, on the arrival of emigrants at Quebec or Montreal, will, for the present season, convey, at the Company's expense, purchasers who pay a first instalment, to the head of Lake Ontario, which is in the vicinity of their choicest lands, and their agents in all parts of the upper province will give such emigrants every information and assistance in their power.

No heavy or cumbrous baggage ought to be taken—household furniture, iron utensils, implements of husbandry,—in short, all articles of considerable bulk or weight will cost, in freight and carriage, more than the expense of replacing them in Upper Canada; besides the trouble of their conveyance, the risk of damage, and the danger of articles carried from England or Ireland being found unsuited for use in America. The baggage of emigrants should consist only of their wearing apparel, with such bedding, and utensils for cooking, as may be required on the voyage; and any articles of clothing not intended to be used at sea, ought to be packed in water-tight cases or trunks, not exceeding eighty or ninety pounds in weight.

The Company will receive deposits of money at their office, in London, from persons emigrating to Canada, giving letters of credit on their Commissioners, in Canada, for the amount, by which the emigrant gets the benefit of the current rate of exchange, which was, in 1830, 6*l.* to 9*l.* per cent.

Besides the Canadian Company, there are some others formed or forming for purposes nearly similar.

One of these, the American Land Company, thus expresses its intentions: "The objects of this Company are to purchase or obtain grants and possession of lands from his Majesty's Government, corporate bodies, or individuals in the province of Lower Canada, or other provinces and colonies in British America, for the purpose of opening roads, building bridges, erecting mills, &c., preparing lands for occupation, and disposing of such lands, by sale, lease, or otherwise, to emigrants and others—affording information and assistance, and to facilitate the location and settlement of emigrants and others disposed to purchase lands of the Company, as well as to transmit their funds from this country to the colonies—to promote general improvements, and to follow up the principles and purposes of the existing Canada Company, which have proved so eminently beneficial to that corporation, the colony, and the emigrant; bearing in mind such alterations as the localities, the population, laws and circumstances of the respective neighbourhoods, may require."

Another of these Companies has for its object the settlement of New Brunswick; but it is possible that settlements there may not be so easily formed, more especially till the line of boundary with the United States is finally settled.

No. 3.—Statement of Steam and Team-Boats plying on the St. Lawrence
Lower Canada, 1829, by Joseph Rouchette, Esq.

Between Quebec and Montreal.										
Numbers.	NAMES.	Tonnage.	Horse power.	Rate of Freights per ton.		Cabin passage.		Steerage or Deck Passengers.		REMARKS.
				Up.	Down	Up.	Down			
1	*The John Molson -	500	120	s.	s. d.	£ s.	£ s.	s.		The boats marked thus * belong to the St. Lawrence Steam-boat Company.
2	*The Quebec -	500	60	..	..	1 10	1 5	10		
3	*The Swiftsure -	300	65	..	..	..	..	..		
4	*The Chambly -	400	60	..	..	..	..	..		
5	The La Prairie -	100	30	..	..	..	..	..		Belongs to J. Mac Kenzie and others of Montreal.
6	*The Waterloo -	130	45	..	..	..	..	..		Hon. Mathew Bell and others.
7	The Richelieu -	350	45	..	..	..	..	..		
8	The Heracle -	600	100	..	..	..	..	..		To a Company at Montreal.
9	*The St. Lawrence -	350	65	..	..	..	..	..		To George Grafield and others.
10	The Lady of the Lake	70	28	..	..	..	..	..		
Ferry Steam-Boats plying between Montreal, Longueuil, and Montreal.										
1	The Edmond Henry	90	45	..	..	..	..	..		To Edmond Henry Esq. and others.
2	The Montreal -	90	45	..	..	..	..	..		To M. Raymond Esq. La Prairie.
Team-Boats.										
1	The Edmond -	20	10							
2	The Longueuil -	..	..							
Ferry Steam-Boats plying between Quebec and Point Levi.										
1	The Lauzon -	..	30	Fourpence across.						To Mr. J. Mac Kenzie, Point Levi.
Team-Boats.										
1	-	..	10	Threepence across.						Belonging to farmers at Point Levi.
2	-	..	8							
Total 16 Steam-boats, and 4 Team-boats, plying on the St. Lawrence.										
Total 60 river crafts, navigating between Quebec and Montreal, of 25 to 100 tons burden.										
Rate of Freight per ton, 7s. 6d.										
Square rigged vessels on the stocks at Montreal - - - 2										
Ditto ditto Quebec - - - 9										
Small crafts - - - 0 2										
Total 11 2										
There are also two Steam-boats on the Ottawa river, plying between Grenville and Hull, one between La Chine and Point Fortune, and one between La Chine and the Cascades.										

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n ge.	Steorage or Deck Passengers.	REMARKS.
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5	10	The boats marked
..	..	thus * belong to
..	..	the St. Lawrence
..	..	Steam-boat Com
..	..	pany.
..	..	Belongs to J. Mac
..	..	Kenzie and others
..	..	of Montreal.
..	..	Hon. Mathew Bell
..	..	and others.
..	..	To a Company at
..	..	Montreal.
..	..	To George Grafield
..	..	and others.

Longueuil, and Montreal.

..	..	To Edmond Henry
..	..	Esq. and others.
..	..	To M. Raymond
..	..	Esq. La Prairie.

ec and Point Levi.

cross.	To Mr. J. Mac Ken
	zie, Point Levi.

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	mers at Point
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the St. Lawrence.
and Montreal, of 25 to 100 tons

-	-	-	2
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Total 11 2

ver, plying between Grenville
e, and one between La Chine

. STREET, STRAND.